

BRITAIN 1949-50

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A REFERENCE HANDBOOK

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INTRODUCTORY NOTE

This handbook contains factual and statistical information about the United Kingdom, compiled from official and authoritative sources. It is not intended to be exhaustive, but to provide basic data on the main aspects of the national life which are within the field of Government action.

The information, except where otherwise stated, relates to the summer of 1949. In general, the contents refer to the United Kingdom as a whole, but where separate figures are available for England and Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland, these have also been given if they are such as to be of general interest.

For additional or more detailed information, readers are referred to the Monthly Digest of Statistics issued by the Central Statistical Office and to Reference Division's Basic Information Papers and the weekly Home Affairs Survey.

Reference Division,
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I. ADMINISTRATION

1. CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

(a) Constitution

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is a parliamentary democracy with a limited constitutional monarchy, cabinet government carried on in the name of the King, and a bicameral legislative assembly. Of the King's ancient powers little remains except "the right to be consulted, the right to encourage, the right to warn," and the extent to which these can be used depends, within very circumscribed limits, on the King's own personality and experience.

The Prime Minister and the Cabinet are at the head of the Executive, and the Government is normally formed of the majority party in the House of Commons, and resigns if it can no longer command the confidence of the House.

As the Constitution is unwritten and in a continual state of evolution, the division of constitutional functions is by no means rigid; most legislation is introduced by the Government, and Parliament can, and does, call upon Ministers to account for their actions under that legislation. Ministers may, especially in times of emergency, be given power to make Orders under special Acts, but are limited in their independence by the necessity of conforming to the Government's policy and by parliamentary control of finances.

The Ministers of the Crown (Transfer of Functions) Act, 1946, was mainly designed to provide for still greater flexibility in the allocation of the statutory functions of Ministers and their departments. It is now possible for such functions to be transferred by Order in Council, or for a Department to be dissolved and its functions transferred to another Department.

Some changes have been made in the composition and functions of Departments since August, 1945. The Ministries of Supply and Aircraft Production have been amalgamated, and the Ministry of Production has been merged with the Board of Trade. The Ministry of Information has been abolished, and its functions divided between the Departmental Information Divisions and the Central Office of Information, co-ordination being secured by committees on the ministerial and official level.

Departmental organisation is, on the whole, centralised in London, though certain Departments, notably the Ministry of Food, the Board of Trade, the Ministry of National Insurance, and the Ministry of Labour, have Regional Offices.

Scotland.—The Office of Secretary of State for Scotland is discharged through four main administrative Departments—the Department of Agriculture for Scotland, the Scottish Education Department, the Department of Health for Scotland (including Town and Country Planning), and the Scottish Home Department—exercising functions broadly comparable with the functions exercised in England and Wales by the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries, Ministry of Education, Ministry of Health, Ministry of Town and Country Planning, and the Home Office.

The Scottish Secretary also exercises through the Scottish Home Department certain functions in relation to the organisation of Courts of Law and judicial appointments—in consultation with the Lord Advocate—as well as a general responsibility for the organisation of the Record Office and other Register House Departments, the National Galleries of Scotland, the National Library of Scotland, and the Edinburgh Observatory, corresponding functions in England and Wales are shared between the Lord Chancellor, the Treasury, and the Admiralty.

On other matters there are Ministers whose statutory jurisdiction extends throughout Britain, e.g., President of the Board of Trade, Minister of Labour and National Service, Minister of Transport, Minister of Fuel and Power, and the Minister of National Insurance. The Scottish Secretary is, however, popularly regarded as "Scotland's Minister" and is expected to be the mouthpiece of Scottish opinion in the Cabinet and elsewhere in matters which are not strictly within the sphere of his statutory responsibilities. He may be appealed to on a variety of questions with a Scottish aspect, and in certain cases, e.g., in relation to the determination of development areas in Scotland, the Herring Industry Board, and the North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board, he shares responsibility with Ministers for Great Britain. The Ministerial responsibility for the Forestry Commission and the Crown Lands Commission, whose jurisdiction extends throughout Great Britain, is shared between the Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries and the Scottish Secretary.

Legislation in matters within the sphere of English Ministers in England and Wales and of the Scottish Secretary in Scotland is usually dealt with in separate Bills owing to the differences in the law and conditions in the two countries; but sometimes a single Bill for Great Britain may be sponsored by the English Ministers and the Scottish Secretary. Legislation on matters within the sphere of Ministers for Great Britain is usually dealt with in Bills applying to Great Britain. Where a Bill applies to Great Britain it is necessary to translate for Scotland references to English law and conditions and this is done in a "Scottish application" clause.

Northern Ireland, while it is represented in the Parliament at Westminster by 13 members, has its own Parliament in Belfast. The Senate comprises the Lord Mayor of Belfast, the Mayor of Londonderry, and 24 senators elected by the members of the (Ulster) House of Commons, and the House of Commons of 52 members elected by the same electors and in the same manner as members returned by Northern Ireland constituencies to the United Kingdom Parliament. The Parliament has power generally to make laws for the peace, order and good government of Northern Ireland in relation to all matters except certain services reserved to the United Kingdom Parliament such as income tax, Post Office, Judiciary, Customs and Excise Duties, etc. All executive power in Northern Ireland is vested in the King, but is exercised by the Governor of Northern Ireland.

The services in Northern Ireland in connection with the lower Courts, police, prisons, civil defence, national fire service, elections and franchise are administered by the Ministry of Home Affairs for Northern Ireland in Belfast.

The Ministry of Education for Northern Ireland in Belfast exercises general and detailed supervision over all forms of education (other than university education) and superintends the working of the local education authorities.

The Ministry of Health and Local Government is responsible for housing, the public health services, etc. There are also the Ministries of Agriculture, Labour and National Insurance, Finance and Commerce.

(b) Parliament

Elections.—For parliamentary elections the country is divided geographically; there are county and borough divisions, and in Scotland a group of towns may form a Parliamentary Burgh, returning one member. Seats are distributed more or less according to population, approximately one seat to every 50,000, and some anomalies were corrected by the House of Commons (Distribution of Seats) Act, 1944. Under this Act a Boundary Commission was empowered to review Parliamentary constituencies with special reference to movements of population and local needs. A summary of the recommendations of the Commission for England was issued

on 30th May, 1946. Revised proposals for all three countries were in the Commission's reports, published 12th December, 1947.

On 30th July, 1948, the *Representation of the People Act* received the Royal Assent. It consolidates electoral law, implements a number of the recommendations of the Boundary Commissions and removes the last remnants of plural voting—the business premises vote and the university vote. The House of Commons is to be reduced from 640 members to 625, of whom 506 will be allocated to England, 71 to Scotland, 36 to Wales, and 12 to Northern Ireland.

The qualification for voting is residential, and the candidate who gets the largest number of votes in a particular constituency is elected.

There is universal adult suffrage, the only exceptions (apart from members of the House of Lords) being lunatics, and persons convicted of treason or felony.

The task of compiling the voters' register is laid on the local authorities, and is in the hands of the Clerks of the County and Borough Councils, the elections being supervised by the Mayors and Sheriffs. Members of the Armed Forces and the Merchant Marine, and persons whose business necessitates their being elsewhere at the time of the election, may vote by post, or by proxy, on the Absent Voters' List.

Parties and Seats : October, 1949.

Government		Opposition		Other Parties	
Labour	389	Conservative ..	193	Liberal ..	11
		Ulster Unionist	10	Communist ..	2
		National ..	2	Irish Nationalist	2
		Liberal National	13	Independent ..	.
				Conservative	1
				Independent	
				Labour ..	6
				Independent ..	11
<hr/> 389		<hr/> 218		<hr/> 33	

Total : 640.

• *Legislative Process.*—Most Bills are nowadays sponsored by the Government and introduced in the House of Commons, although some non-controversial measures are first introduced in the House of Lords (in normal times there is also provision for private members' Bills when parliamentary time permits).

The title is read, the Bill is deemed to have been read the First Time, and is printed. On the Second Reading a policy debate takes place, and, if the Bill passes, any accompanying Financial Resolution is usually considered. The Bill is then committed either to one of five Standing Committees or, less often while existing pressure of legislation continues, to a Committee of the Whole House, which reports on its findings. The amendments made in Committee, if satisfactory, are passed, and the Bill is read a Third Time, and passed to the House of Lords, where it goes through a very similar process.

If the Commons cannot agree to the Lords' amendments, or vice versa, a Joint Committee may be appointed to settle the matter. Under the Parliament Act of 1911 the Lords have power to delay all Bills except Money Bills for two years, if they are unacceptable, though this power is seldom used. A measure to reduce the Lords' delaying power from two years to one passed the Commons 10th December, 1947, and was then twice rejected by the Lords. It was introduced a third time and

was finally rejected by the Lords on 29th November. Under the procedure of the Parliament Act, 1911, it received Royal Assent on 16th December.

After a Bill has been finally passed by the Lords, and their amendments, if any, agreed on by the Commons, it must then go to the King to receive the Royal Assent. It thus becomes an Act.

Apart from its purely legislative function, Parliament also debates questions of past or future policy at home and abroad. The Government consults the Opposition about the business of Parliament and arrangements for debates, which may be "full-dress" debates on important questions, debates on various matters on days reserved for Committees of Supply (when the Opposition can choose the subject), or brief debates on matters which individual members consider important, which they raise on the motion for adjournment. A feature of Parliament is Question Time, when at the beginning of each day's sitting, individual members, or peers, may ask Ministers in their respective Houses questions on matters of general importance or which concern individual cases or constituencies.

Legislation 1945-8

1945-6 Session.—During the 1945-6 Session of Parliament 96 Bills were introduced of which 84 became Acts. Among the most important measures were :—*

<i>Supplies and Services (Transitional Powers) Act (20.8.45)</i>	..	10.12.45
<i>Ministers of the Crown (Transfer of Functions) Act (18.12.45)</i>	..	22.1.46
<i>Bank of England Act (10.10.45)</i>	14.2.46
<i>Coal Industry Nationalisation Act (19.12.45)</i>	12.7.46
<i>Civil Aviation Act (2.4.46)</i>	1.8.46
<i>Cable and Wireless Act (18.4.46)</i>	6.11.46
<i>Atomic Energy Act (1.5.46)</i>	6.11.46
<i>Borrowing (Control and Guarantees) Act (23.1.46)</i>	12.7.46
<i>Finance (No. 1) Act (31.10.45)</i>	20.12.45
<i>Finance (No. 2) Act (17.4.46)</i>	1.8.46
<i>Hill Farming Act (18.2.46)</i>	6.11.46
<i>Agricultural Development (Ploughing-up of Land) Act (20.2.46)</i>	..	6.3.46
<i>Inshore Fishing Industry Act (23.8.45)</i>	10.12.45
<i>National Insurance Act (20.12.45)</i>	1.8.46
<i>National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Act (23.8.45)</i>	..	26.7.46
<i>National Health Service Act (19.3.46)</i>	6.11.46
<i>Building Materials and Housing Act (14.11.45)</i>	20.12.45
<i>Trunk Roads Act (26.10.45)</i>	6.3.46
<i>Acquisition of Land (Authorisation Procedure) Act (14.12.45)</i>	..	18.4.46
<i>New Towns Act (17.4.46)</i>	1.8.46
<i>Bretton Woods Agreement Act (7.12.45)</i>	20.12.45
<i>United Nations Act (31.1.46)</i>	15.4.46

1946-7 Session : In the 1946-7 Session, adjourned 13th August, 57 out of 59 of the Bills introduced received the Royal Assent, including the following :—

<i>Agriculture Act (18.12.46)</i>	6.8.47
<i>Agriculture (Emergency Payments) Act (5.5.47)</i>	18.7.47
<i>Companies Act (5.12.46)</i>	6.8.47
<i>Crown Proceedings Act (13.2.47)</i>	31.7.47
<i>Electricity Act (20.12.46)</i>	13.8.47
<i>Finance Act, 1947 (23.4.47)</i>	31.7.47
<i>Fire Services Act (14.2.47)</i>	31.7.47
<i>Industrial Organisation Act (24.1.47)</i>	31.7.47

* Figures in parentheses show date on which Bill was presented to Parliament. Other figures show date of Royal Assent.

<i>National Service Act (12.3.47)</i>	18.7.47
<i>Penicillin Act (5.3.47)</i>	18.7.47
<i>Statistics of Trade Act (4.12.46)</i>	31.7.47
<i>Supplies and Services (Extended Purposes) Act (5.8.47)</i>	13.8.47
<i>Town and Country Planning Act (20.12.46)</i>	13.8.47
<i>Transport Act (27.11.46)</i>	6.8.47

There was also the India Independence Act (Royal Assent, 18th July, 1947) which granted India independence from British rule and set up two Dominions within the continent to be known as India and Pakistan. The Ceylon Independence Act and the Burma Independence Act received Royal Assent on 10th December, 1947.

1947-8 Session : Important measures introduced in the Government's third session included :—

<i>Children Act (18.12.47)</i>	30.6.48
<i>Criminal Justice Act (31.10.47)</i>	30.7.48
<i>Development of Inventions Act (13.4.48)</i>	30.7.48
<i>Employment and Training Act (22.3.48)</i>	13.7.48
<i>Finance Act (17.11.47)</i>	18.12.47
<i>Gas Act (21.1.48)</i>	30.7.48
<i>Local Government Act (27.10.47)</i>	24.3.48
<i>Monopoly and Restrictive Practices (Inquiry and Control) Act (25.3.48)</i>	30.7.48
<i>Notional Assistance Act (30.10.47)</i>	13.5.48
<i>Representation of the People Act (30.1.48)</i>	30.7.48

1948-9 Session : Important measures introduced in the Government's next session included :—

<i>Civil Defence Act, 1948 (5.11.48)</i>	16.12.48
<i>Coal Industry Act, 1949 (12.11.48)</i>	30.7.49
<i>Housing Act, 1949 (28.2.49)</i>	30.7.49
<i>Iron and Steel Act (27.10.48)</i>	24.11.49
<i>Landlord and Tenant (Rent Control) Act, 1949 (17.12.48)</i>	2.6.49
<i>Legal Aid and Advice Act, 1949 (18.11.48)</i>	30.7.49
<i>National Parks and Access to the Countryside Act (17.3.49)</i>	16.12.49
<i>National Service (Amendment) Act, 1949</i>	16.12.48
<i>National Theatre Act, 1949 (18.11.48)</i>	9.3.49
<i>Parliament Act, 1949 (31.10.47)</i>	16.12.49

(c) Civil Service

The Civil Service in Britain is recruited by competitive examination, for which purpose, and for departmental organisation and salary scales, it is divided into three main grades : Administrative, Executive, and Clerical. The first grade is recruited from university graduates, the second from those who have taken the Higher School Certificate, and the third from those aged 16-17 who have taken the School Certificate Examination.

Civil Servants are either Permanent (Established) or Temporary (Unestablished). Permanent Civil Servants are not removable except on proof of gross incompetence, dishonesty, etc. They are pensionable and the retiring age is normally 60, with the possibility of extension to 65.

During the war, many new Departments were set up, and there has been a large-scale recruitment of Temporary Civil Servants. As a result, the total number of Civil Servants (including Post Office Staff, etc.) has increased from approximately 395,000 in 1939 to 697,365 (1st July, 1949). The entrance examinations were temporarily replaced by reconstruction examinations for those under 30 designed

to facilitate entrance into the permanent service for those who have been engaged on war work, or in the Forces, and the *Superannuation Act* (13th May, 1946) makes provision for the establishment of a certain proportion from the Forces, as laid down in the White Paper of November, 1944 (Cmd. 6567).

The task of examining and selecting candidates is, subject to Act of Parliament, the care of the Civil Service Commission. The Treasury controls departmental expenditure and acts as the "employer," making regulations for the discipline of the Service. Machinery for negotiations on conditions of service is provided by the Whitley Councils (which have official and staff sides), and by the various unions, notably the Civil Service Clerical Association, the Union of Post Office Workers, and the Society of Civil Servants, which, since the passing of the *Trade Disputes and Trade Unions Act* (23rd January, 1946) may be affiliated to the T.U.C.

2. LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Like almost every other British institution, local government in Britain is the result of lively and varied growth over a long period. It has, in the British way, always cared more for vitality than for mechanical regularity, and it is best considered, not merely as a piece of machinery, but as part of a living organism. Its function has been to give the citizen a chance of self-government at his own level, and at each stage of its history it has represented an intermediate stage in government between the central executive and himself.

(a) Structure in England and Wales

There are seven types of local councils in England and Wales, the members of which are directly elected by the votes of the electors cast in local elections:—

62 County Councils.

83 County Borough Councils.

309 Borough Councils.

28 Metropolitan Borough Councils and 1 City of London Corporation.

572 Urban District Councils.

475 Rural District Councils.

About 7,000 Parish Councils.

Each local authority derives its powers from Parliament, and generally speaking it is not answerable for its actions to any other authority (central or local) except to the Courts in the event of its decisions being challenged as *ultra vires*. The Ministry of Health is the central department most closely concerned with local government, but other departments (the Home Office, the Ministry of Education for example) are also in close touch with local authorities.

In the larger towns and cities outside London local government is in the hands of a single authority, the *County Borough Council*. County Boroughs are not normally below 50,000 in population and no new County Borough can be created with a population of less than 100,000 (*Local Government (Boundary Commission) Act, 1945*).

In the middle-sized and smaller towns the work is divided between the *County Council*, which looks after education, local health services, police, social welfare, public libraries and some other services throughout the county, and the *Municipal Borough or Urban District Councils*, which are responsible for the rest of the work in their areas.

In the rural parts of the county the work is divided between the County Council, the *Rural District Councils*, and the *Councils (or Meetings) of Parishes*, into which the Rural Districts are further divided. The Parish Meeting—whether called to

appoint the Parish Councillor to take the place of a Parish Council in a small parish under 300 population)—is an interesting piece of "direct democracy," i.e., government by the assembled electors themselves.

London: London has always had special problems of its own and it has evolved its own unique form of local government. The *City Corporation*, which governs the historic square mile in the heart of the commercial City, is very ancient. On the other hand, the *London County Council (L.C.C.)* was only created in 1888, and the 28 *Metropolitan Boroughs* into which the County (outside the City) is now divided were incorporated as such in 1899. The L.C.C. deals with education, the larger housing schemes, certain public health matters and (from July, 1948) maternity and child welfare, besides many other civic activities. The City Corporation and the Metropolitan Borough Councils administer, among other matters, local sanitation and sewerage, the removal of refuse, the provision of libraries, baths and public wash-houses, street lighting, and markets.

The present distribution of the 129 Councillors' seats on the London County Council following the results of the elections held in April, 1949, is: Labour 65, Conservative 63, Liberals 1, Communists 0. There are, in addition, 16 Labour and 5 Conservative Aldermen.

Mayors, Aldermen and Councillors: The civic head of the City of London and 17 other cities in England and Wales is called the Lord Mayor. This is a title of special honour, like the status of City. Other Boroughs, including most cities, have Mayors. Lord Mayors and Mayors are elected annually by the Town Council and they preside over its meetings, but they do not exercise the executive powers which many Mayors and Burgomasters possess in other countries. They usually receive salaries, which are in effect allowances for entertainment expenses. A County Council, District Council or Parish Council is presided over by a Chairman elected annually.

In the County and Borough provision is also made for the Council to appoint Aldermen, to one-third the number of the Councillors. The Aldermen are usually men with long records of local public service. They are members of the Council and enjoy a longer term of office (six years) than the Councillors (three years). All service by Councillors and Aldermen is voluntary and unpaid, though County Councils pay expenses incurred by members who have to travel to council meetings and committees; and further provision for the expenses of members of local authorities is now being considered.

The Chairman of a County Council or of an Urban or Rural District Council is *ex officio* a Justice of the Peace for the county during his term of office. The Mayor of a Borough (County or Non-County) is *ex officio* a J.P. for his borough also.

A local Councillor must be a British subject of full age and also be a local government elector for the area or own land within the area, or during the whole of the twelve months preceding the day of election have resided in the area or, in the case of a Parish Council only, within three miles of it.

(b) Local Elections

Local elections were held in November, 1945, and March and April, 1946, for the first time since the outbreak of war in 1939. Elections for the Borough Councils in England and Wales were held on 1st November, 1945, and for Town Councils in Scotland on 6th November, 1945. Local elections for County Councils in England and Wales took place in March, 1946, and for District and Parish Councils in April, 1946. In the Borough Council elections of November, 1947, sweeping gains were made by the Conservatives, involving heavy losses by Labour. Over 2½ million

more people voted in 1947 than in 1946. All parties except the Communists increased their voting strength. While the Labour vote increased by nearly a million, the Conservative vote increased by over 1,380,000 and that of Independents with Conservative support by 306,838. In the District Council elections held in April, 1948, there were also big gains by the Conservatives. In all the local elections—county, borough and district—of 1949, the Conservatives again secured big gains.

The Local Government Act, 1933, makes the following provisions, inter alia, relating to local elections. All Councillors are elected for periods of three years. County Councils, Metropolitan Borough Councils, some Urban and Rural District Councils, and Parish Councils are elected every third year when all the Councillors retire together. Elections are held annually for other Borough Councils and for most Urban and Rural District Councils (i.e., unless the County Council, at the request of the District Council, has made an order for all the Councillors to retire together). One-third of the Councillors retire annually and are elected at each of these elections. Borough Council elections used to be held in November, but from 1949 the month has been changed to May. Other local elections are held at roughly the same time.

Elections to all local councils other than Parish Councils are held according to principles followed in parliamentary elections since the passing of the *Ballot Act* of 1872. There is a secret ballot and each elector has the same number of votes as there are seats to be filled. The procedure to be followed at local elections is laid down in the *Local Government Act, 1933*. District Councillors are elected under district council election rules made by the Home Secretary. These are substantially similar to those contained in the Second Schedule to the 1933 Act, applicable to Borough and County Council elections. Before an election is held the candidates must be properly nominated by two local government electors; notice of poll is given by the Returning Officer, who must also publish the names, addresses and descriptions of all duly nominated candidates. Public meetings are held, election addresses are circulated, and canvassers call on the voters and ask their support for particular candidates.

The election of Parish Councillors usually takes place openly in the Parish Meeting, but a poll may always be demanded and in some parishes orders have been made by the County Council for the adoption of the system of nomination, followed by a poll, which is used for District Councils.

All persons over 21 years of age who are registered in the National Register as residing or who occupy property (as owner or tenant) in the area of a local authority for which an election is being held are entitled to be registered for the local government vote. (In addition, in Scotland, an owner who is not in occupation of property can claim the local government vote in respect of that property.)

(c) The Work of the Councils

The work done by local authorities in Great Britain is very considerable, and the responsibility resting on the unpaid, democratically elected representatives who, as Councillors, give their services to its administration, correspondingly heavy. In terms of financial responsibility alone, for example, a total of £723.45 million was expended in 1943-4 by the Councils of England and Wales, of which £204.1 million was derived from local levies of rates on property (est. for 1946-7, £239 million), and £522.9 million from taxes in the form of Government grants. (Of these the most important—the General Exchequer Grant—is applied generally in aid of the local authority's expenditure, while others, e.g., the grant made by the Ministry of Education, are applied towards the expenses of a particular service. Large revenues are also derived from *ad hoc* charges for services, e.g., electricity charges, etc.) Over one-third of the revenue is derived from grants, over one-third from specific revenues to the local authorities, and under one-third from rates.

Local authorities are responsible for the local administration of certain national services for which Parliament has defined a national minimum standard; such services are the police (outside London), public health, including hospitals and maternity and child welfare, education, and housing. (Hospitals and public assistance (the relief of destitution) have become national responsibilities.) Local authorities also provide purely local services such as museums, libraries, markets, fire brigades (nationalised during the war*), street cleansing and refuse disposal, drainage and sanitation, and, in some cases, public utilities such as water, gas, electricity, and transport. Since 1938 local authorities have been responsible for organising and administering civil defence in their areas.

In many of these fields local authorities have permissive powers that are exercised variously in different areas.

The work of the local authorities in its main spheres is recorded in other sections of this book (see Police, Education, Health, Housing).

(d) Local Government Act

A new *Local Government Act* received Royal Assent on 24th March, 1948. It provides for the equalising of rates between "rich" and "poor" areas. This is to be done by equalisation grants "to be paid to local authorities from 1st April, 1948, in place of block grants and supplementary grants, and based on an average minimum rating standard for the country as a whole." It also provides for a system of central valuation, involving the reassessment of all properties; and for payments by local authorities to their members towards travelling and subsistence expenses and for "loss of remunerative time." The new equalisation grants, which will be heavily "weighted" in favour of the poorer areas, would on the basis of 1946-7 figures give a relief to the local rates in Britain of £45 million. The change is made possible by the transfer, on 5th July, 1948, of the cost of hospital and health services and the poor law system from local authorities to the State as a consequence of the *National Health Service Act* and the *National Assistance Act* (see p.102).

(e) Local Government Boundary Commission

A Local Boundary Commission was set up under the *Local Government (Boundary Commission) Act* (15th June, 1945) broadly for the purpose of making all local government units, both individually and collectively, effective and convenient units. The first report, published 22nd April, 1947 (H.M.S.O., 4d), showed that 37 counties and 80 county boroughs had asked, or indicated their intention to ask, for some alteration. In addition, proposals were received from 44 authorities for the creation (either individually or in amalgamation) of 33 new county boroughs. Of the 309 non-county boroughs, the great majority are among the most effective and convenient units of local government. It is recommended that those that could not be made efficient by extension should be united with neighbouring districts, but should be allowed to retain their traditional historic associations intact. In June, 1949, the Minister of Health announced the Government's intention to repeal the Act, thereby winding up the Boundary Commission, which had had no power to alter the structure of local government. This, he said, would restore the position substantially to what it was before the Act, until the Government had had an opportunity of reviewing the structure and functions of local government.

(f) Scotland and Northern Ireland

Scotland: *The Councils*.—Scotland is divided for administrative purposes into counties, burghs and districts which are administered respectively by County, Town,

*The National Fire Service was formed in 1941, combining all local fire brigades. The Fire Services Act (31st July, 1947) was passed to transfer the service to the control of the councils of counties and county boroughs in England and Wales, and of counties and large burghs in Scotland. A measure of central direction and control is being retained.

and District Councils (*Local Government (Scotland) Act, 1929*). There are 33 counties, 196 burghs—including 24 large burghs, of which four are counties of cities, and 172 small burghs—and 199 districts. A district is made up of one or more electoral divisions of a county.

The four *counties of cities* are independent units for the purpose of all local government functions including education. The *other large burghs* are independent units for all purposes except education and in some cases police, the functions of education authority, and, where necessary, police authority, being carried out by the county. *Small burghs* are within the county not only for education and police but also for such purposes as public assistance, major health services (maternity services and child welfare, infectious diseases including tuberculosis and venereal disease, hospitals, food and drugs), town planning and classified roads, but the town councils administer such functions as minor health services (general sanitation, the regulation of the erection and construction of buildings), unclassified roads and streets, housing, water, drainage, public parks, public libraries, weights and measures. *District Councils* are charged with functions relating to recreation grounds, rights of way and allotments. *County Councils* have power to delegate certain functions to the Town Councils of small burghs, to District Councils, and to joint committees of such Town and District Councils.

The Secretary of State for Scotland is the central authority for local government in the country, and the chief Government Departments concerned are the Scottish Home Department, the Scottish Education Department, and the Department of Health for Scotland, which are under his control. They have their headquarters in Edinburgh.

Comenars, Provosts, Chairman and Bailies : A County Council is presided over by the *comener* of the county, a Town Council by a *provost* or *lord provost*, and a District Council by its *chairman*. The *coavener* of a County and the chairman of a District Council are appointed annually, but a provost or lord provost holds office for three years. A Town Council appoints from among its members a number of *bailies* who hold office so long as they remain councillors ; these with the provost or lord provost are the magistrates of the burgh.

Councillors : A person is qualified for election as member of a local authority if he is a local government elector for the area or any part of the area of the authority or if he has, during the whole of the twelve months preceding the day on which he is nominated, resided in the area of the authority. For this purpose the area of a County Council includes any burgh within the county.

Elections : County and District Councils have been elected triennially in December but future elections are to be held in November ; all the members retire at the end of the three-year term. One-third of the members of a Town Council retire each year and the vacancies are filled by election in November, or, in the case of certain fishing burghs, on a date between November and February.

County councillors for the landward area are elected by the local government electors, in the electoral divisions. (The term "landward" applies to that part of a county which is not contained in any burgh.) County Councils also include representatives of all the burghs which are within the county for any purposes, i.e., of the large and small burghs except the four counties of cities. These burghal county councillors are elected not directly by the electors but by the Town Council of the burgh in question. Members of Town Councils are elected by the local government electors in the burgh or a ward thereof. Members of District Councils (other than the county councillors for the district who are members *ex officio* of the district council) are elected by the local government electors in an electoral division (or ward thereof) of the landward area of the county.

Northern Ireland : The pattern of local government in Northern Ireland is similar to that in England and Wales.

Councils : There are six County Councils in Northern Ireland, two County Borough Councils (Belfast and Londonderry), seven Borough Councils, 26 Urban District Councils, and 32 Rural District Councils.

3. LAW AND ORDER

(a) The Administration of Justice

Speaking generally, the law in England and Wales is administered by Justices of the Peace and Stipendiary Magistrates in Courts of Summary Jurisdiction and in Quarter Sessions, by the County Court Judges in the County Courts, and by the Judges, Lords Justices and Lords of Appeal in the Supreme Court of Judicature, the House of Lords and the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council.

Courts of Summary Jurisdiction :

Petty Sessional Divisional Courts : In these courts, of which there are over 1,000 in all in the English and Welsh counties and boroughs, justice is administered by magistrates, who may be either (1) the unpaid Justices of the Peace (mainly laymen) appointed by the Lord Chancellor (in Lancashire by the Chancellor of the Duchy), on the recommendation of his local advisers in each area ; (2) Justices (also unpaid) *ex officio*, who by statute or otherwise are magistrates by virtue of the holding of some other office or appointment, e.g., Privy Counsellors, Mayors of Boroughs, Chairmen of County and District Councils ; and (3) Metropolitan (paid) Magistrates in London, and Stipendiaries in some 17 of the larger cities in England and Wales, who are appointed by the Crown on the recommendation of the Home Secretary. Unlike the lay, unpaid Justices of the Peace, the Stipendiary Magistrates must be legally qualified and must devote their whole time to their duties, for which they receive remuneration out of public funds. The Justices sitting in Courts of Summary Jurisdiction exercise extensive criminal and civil jurisdiction. They must receive information and complaints, issue warrants or summonses and generally do all necessary acts and matters preliminary to the hearing both in criminal and in civil business. Their powers in criminal cases are to hear, try, determine and adjudge matters which may be dealt with summarily, and, in indictable matters not triable summarily (the graver crimes and misdemeanours), to decide whether the accused person should be committed for trial. Over 97 per cent of all criminal business in England and Wales is dealt with in these Courts. The Justices also deal with a large and varied field of quasi-criminal and civil business, and they exercise many administrative functions in connection with, for example, Licensing, etc., and the witnessing of statutory declarations and other documents.

While a single ordinary Justice of the Peace sitting by himself may deal with certain matters and determine certain cases, his powers are very limited and as a rule the presence of at least two ordinary justices is necessary for the proper constitution of a Court of Summary Jurisdiction. A Metropolitan Magistrate, a Stipendiary Magistrate and (in the City of London) the Lord Mayor or an Alderman sitting alone may exercise all the powers which ordinarily require the presence of more than one justice.

The penalties which Courts of Summary Jurisdiction are empowered to impose are laid down in the various statutes dealing with the offences. Broadly speaking, the maximum penalty is a fine of £50 or six months' imprisonment, or both. When the conviction is before one (lay) justice or two such justices in an occasional Court, the sum adjudged to be paid must not exceed £20—and the imprisonment must not exceed 14 days.

Quarter Sessions : There are in all 64 Courts of Quarter Sessions in the counties of England and Wales. These Courts are attended by the Justices of the County concerned and are presided over in practically all cases by Chairmen or Deputy Chairmen who are "legally qualified" within the meaning of the *Administration*

of Justice (*Miscellaneous Provisions*) Act, 1938. In every case in which the Chairman or Deputy Chairman of the Court is "legally qualified" the Sessions can exercise the extended jurisdiction as provided in the Act; i.e., they can deal with certain specified offences of a grave character, with which the Justices in Petty Sessions are not competent to deal and which otherwise would have to be sent for trial to the Assizes, or, in London, to the Central Criminal Court. In a trial at Quarter Sessions the facts are determined by a jury as in a trial at, for example, the Assizes. The Courts of Quarter Sessions also hear appeals from Petty Sessional Courts and deal with Rating Appeals. In addition to the Courts of Quarter Sessions in the counties the larger boroughs have Courts presided over by a Recorder, who is appointed by the Crown on the recommendation of the Home Secretary. The Recorder is the sole judge of the Court of Quarter Sessions in a Borough. The position of the City of London is exceptional. The Lord Mayor, Aldermen and Recorder of the City of London have Quarter Sessions jurisdiction in a "Court of the Lord Mayor and Aldermen of London."

The County Courts possess civil jurisdiction only, and their jurisdiction is limited by the pecuniary value of the property in dispute, e.g., land and buildings having an annual value not exceeding £100, debts and damages not exceeding £200, trust property, etc., not exceeding £500. They have been given special jurisdiction under various Acts of Parliament, e.g., the Workmen's Compensation Acts, the Bankruptcy Acts, the Rent Restrictions Acts, the Adoption of Children Acts. A considerable part of their business is concerned with the enforcement of the payment of simple contract debts, e.g., for goods supplied.

The County Court is a purely statutory court—dependent for its existence and jurisdiction on Act of Parliament. The whole of England and Wales is divided into County Court districts and there is at least one Court for each district. There are 459 County Courts, presided over by 62 Judges, who are appointed by the Lord Chancellor from barristers of at least ten years' standing. Small cases in the County Court are often tried by the Registrar—a subordinate judicial officer.

The Supreme Court of Judicature: This consists of the High Court of Justice and the Court of Appeal. It is superior to the other Courts mentioned above and inferior only to the House of Lords.

The High Court of Justice consists of the Judges of the King's Bench Division (presided over by the Lord Chief Justice), of the Chancery Division, and of the Probate, Divorce and Admiralty Division. All the Judges of the High Court have equal authority and jurisdiction, but for convenience special classes of business are taken only in each Division. Thus the King's Bench Judges try the more important criminal cases—in London at the Old Bailey, and in the Provinces when they travel to various towns to hold Assizes. They also deal with a large class of civil business, e.g., actions for debt or damages which are outside the pecuniary limits of the County Court, disputes about liability to income tax, and the heavier commercial cases, etc. The Chancery Judges are concerned mainly with matters arising out of the administration of wills and trusts, charities, partnerships, and the care of the property and persons of minors. The Judges of the Probate, Divorce and Admiralty Division deal with disputes arising over the proof of wills, with matrimonial business (e.g., divorce and nullity of marriage), and with collisions at sea and other maritime affairs.

The Judges of the High Court (styled "Mr. Justice So-and-so") are the descendants of the old King's Judges, who since the time of Henry II have sat in London and up and down the country to dispense justice to the King's subjects. Their number is now limited by statute to 32, and a maximum number has always to be assigned to each Division (17 to the King's Bench, five to the Chancery, three to the Probate, Divorce and Admiralty). The actual number assigned at any time to a Division depends, in practice, on the state of business in the Division.

The Court of Appeal : This Court hears appeals from the Judges of the High Court in civil cases, and also from the County Court. The Court is presided over by the Master of the Rolls, assisted by eight Lords Justices of Appeal. The Court usually sits in three divisions, each consisting of three Lords Justices.

The Court of Criminal Appeal : This Court, which was established by statute in 1907 and which consists of at least three Judges of the King's Bench Division, hears appeals from the King's Bench Judges or from Quarter Sessions in the more serious criminal cases. An appeal lies to the Court of Criminal Appeal on questions of law, and, with leave, on questions of fact or against the sentence which has been passed on the accused.

An appeal from the Court of Criminal Appeal lies to the House of Lords only if the Attorney-General (or in his absence the Solicitor-General) gives his certificate that a point of law of exceptional public importance is involved and that it is desirable in the public interest that an appeal to the House of Lords should be brought. An appeal to the Lords from the Court of Criminal Appeal is a comparative rarity.

The House of Lords is the supreme judicial authority for England and Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland. The jurisdiction is exercisable in theory by the whole House, but it is unconstitutional for any Peer to sit judicially except the Lord Chancellor (who presides), ex-Lord Chancellors, Lords of Appeal in Ordinary (law lords who are life Peers), and Peers who have held high judicial office. The Court usually consists of five Peers.

The jurisdiction of the House of Lords extends to criminal and civil appeals—the bulk of its work consisting of appeals in civil cases from the Court of Appeal in England and Northern Ireland and the Court of Session in Scotland.

The Judicial Committee of the Privy Council exercises on behalf of the Crown jurisdiction to hear appeals from the Dominions, the Colonies and from Ecclesiastical Courts in England and Wales. It also hears appeals from the Admiralty Judge of the High Court sitting in Prize. It consists of the Lord Chancellor, ex-Lord Chancellors, the Law Lords, and Privy Councillors who have held high judicial office in the United Kingdom, the Dominions, India, or the Colonies. Its judgment is given by way of a single opinion, advising the Crown to dismiss or allow the appeal.

(b) Police

General : There are at present 130 separate police forces in England and Wales. The Metropolitan Police Force is by far the largest. The City of London has a separate force, and each county and most of the larger boroughs have their own forces. The number of provincial forces has been reduced as from 1st April, 1947, under the terms of the *Police Act, 1946*. The general effect is that each county and each county borough has a separate police force.

The Home Secretary is the police authority for the Metropolitan Police Force. The other forces are under local control—in boroughs, the police authority is the Watch Committee of the borough council, and in counties the police authority is the Standing Joint Committee (half the members being county councillors and half being Justices of the Peace). All forces other than the Metropolitan force are, however, subject to inspection by H.M. Inspectors of Constabulary, and receive a Government grant of 50 per cent of their approved police expenditure, the remaining 50 per cent being met from local rates. Similarly, approximately 50 per cent of the cost of the Metropolitan force is met from the Exchequer. All forces are subject to Regulations made by the Home Secretary as to pay, discipline and other conditions of service, and there is a right of appeal in serious disciplinary cases to the Home Secretary against the decision of the disciplinary authority of the force.

Strength : The total establishment of the regular police service in England and Wales is 70,250 (August, 1949). This total is made up of 19,746 in the Metropolitan force ; 976 in the City of London force ; 21,194 in the borough forces ; and 28,334 in the county forces. In addition there are 61,847 Special Constables. They are unpaid and are liable for part-time duty.

Women Police are employed, in small numbers in most forces. They are attested constables. Their conditions of service are in essentials the same as those of the men. In August, 1949, there were in England and Wales 1,553 regular policewomen.

Specialist Organisations : All but the smallest forces have their own Criminal Investigation Departments, of which the Metropolitan Criminal Investigation Department at Scotland Yard is the best known. The Metropolitan force has the responsibility for central criminal records and a central fingerprint collection.

All forces can make use of the services of the Forensic Science Laboratories, which are stationed in London, Birmingham, Bristol, Cardiff, Nottingham, Preston, and Wakefield.

Some forces already have adequate wireless facilities, and plans are in hand to provide facilities for every force. Each force now has its own separate Traffic Department for dealing with road traffic problems and methods of accident prevention.

Scotland : In Scotland all the police forces are subject to regulations made by the Secretary of State for Scotland as to pay, discipline and other administrative matters. There are 31 county forces and 18 city and burgh forces. At the end of June the total authorised police establishment was 7,447 and the actual strength was 7,003.

Northern Ireland : The Royal Ulster Constabulary, constituted on 1st June, 1922, under the *Constabulary Act (Northern Ireland)* of that year, was recruited from disbanded members of the Royal Irish Constabulary, serving members of the Special Constabulary, and from civilian sources.

Rates of pay, allowances, and pensions are prescribed by the Minister of Home Affairs for Northern Ireland.

The present strength of the Force is approximately 2,865 men and 17 women.

(c) Treatment of Offenders

In Great Britain persons who are convicted by Courts of law of criminal offences may be dealt with in a number of ways, due regard being paid to the nature of the offence, the character of the offender and the protection of the public interest. Except for the offence of murder, for which the penalty prescribed by law is death by hanging, and subject to statutory limitations as regards punishment and jurisdiction it is within the discretion of the Courts to apply the provisions of the Probation of Offenders Act ; to impose fines ; to pass sentences of imprisonment ; or if certain statutory conditions as to previous convictions are satisfied to pass sentences of corrective training or preventive detention. Offenders who are between the ages of 16 and 21 may be sentenced to Borstal Training.

Administration : The general superintendence and control of prisons and Borstal Institutions in England and Wales is vested in the Prison Commission, a body corporate which is governed by not more than five Commissioners who are appointed by the Crown and responsible for their administration to the Home Secretary. There are six Assistant Commissioners, one of them a woman, who take part in the administration of the department and exercise the functions of Inspectors of Prisons.

Until 1877, local prisons were owned by local authorities and administered by local Justices. When ownership and responsibility were transferred to the Secretary of State acting through the Prison Commissioners, certain functions and powers were reserved to statutory bodies known as Visiting Committees, composed of

Justices appointed by the Bench committing to the prisons. Visiting Committees are charged with the general oversight of the prisons ; they have a right to enter the prison at any time and to see any prisoner ; they hear complaints and are the superior disciplinary authority and deal with all the more serious offences against prison discipline.

For Central Prisons and Borstal Institutions which have no specifically local connections, bodies with similar powers and duties are appointed by the Home Secretary from interested and suitable people of whom a certain number must be magistrates ; these bodies are known as Boards of Visitors.

The staff of each prison and Borstal is comprised of a Governor and such number of Deputy or Assistant Governors, Medical Officers, Chaplains, Chief Officers and subordinate staff as may be requisite to the needs of the establishment. All the officers who are fully engaged in the Prison Service are established Civil Servants.

Principles : The present policy of the Police Commissioners derives from the principles which were affirmed by the Departmental Committee on Prisons in 1895. This Committee rejected the conception that prisoners should be regarded as prisoners and nothing more, and recommended that prison treatment should be effectually designed to maintain, stimulate or awaken the higher susceptibility of prisoners, to develop their moral instincts, to train them in orderly and industrial habits and wherever possible to turn them out of prison better men and women than when they went in. The Prison Commissioners conceive it to be their duty, therefore, subject to the requirements of security, discipline and good order to introduce all practical measures which are calculated to lead to the training and reformation of prisoners.

Classification : The daily average population of prisons and Borstals has been for some time around 20,000. To accommodate this number there are at present in use 40 prisons and 17 Borstals. Every prisoner committed to prison is first received into a local prison, where he is classified by reference to the length and nature of his sentence, his age and his personal history and character. There is complete separation of the sexes and, so far as conditions permit, of young prisoners from adults, of untried prisoners from convicted prisoners, and of civil prisoners from criminal prisoners.

Untried Prisoners : The Prison Act, 1877, defines treatment suitable for prisoners on remand or awaiting trial as "as little as possible oppressive, due regard only being had to their safe custody, to the necessity of preserving order and good government . . ."

Young Prisoners : All prisoners under 21 are placed in the *Young Prisoners Class* and those with longer sentences are sent to *Young Prisoners Centres*, where special facilities are provided for training.

Adult Prisoners sentenced to imprisonment are divided into *Star Class* and *Ordinary Class*. The *Star Class* is defined by Statutory Rule 9 (3) as follows :—

"Prisoners of 21 years of age and over who have not previously been in prison on conviction shall be placed in the *Star Class* unless the reception board considers that, in view of their record or character, they are likely to have a bad influence on others. The reception board may also place in the *Star Class* a prisoner of 21 years of age and over who has previously been in prison on conviction if they are satisfied, having regard to the nature of the previous offence, or to the length of time since it was committed, or to the prisoner's general record and character, that he is not likely to have a bad influence on others."

Star prisoners with sentences of over 12 months go to *Regional Training Prisons*, unless excluded by reasons of their character or history. Some *Ordinary Class* prisoners whose records suggest that they are not beyond rehabilitation are also sent to such prisons.

Prisoners with sentences of over three years are removed as soon as possible to

Central Prisons, which are selected as having the most suitable premises for prolonged detention.

After a period of detention in a closed prison, selected prisoners are transferred to *Open Prisons*, mostly huttid camps.

Special arrangements are made for persistent offenders, sentenced to *Corrective Training or Preventive Detention*.

Employment : Prisoners are employed on useful productive work for some 10 hours a day, of which up to 8 hours are spent in association and the remaining hours worked in the cell.

The great majority of prisoners are unskilled in any trade and are serving sentences too short to be taught one. For these the work provided is of a simple character, such as sewing mailbags, re-making mattresses and the domestic service of the prison.

For suitable prisoners with longer sentences there is a wide variety of skilled and semi-skilled trades, often in modern shops with up-to-date power machinery. Farming and stock-raising are undertaken at certain Institutions.

In order to supply incentive there is an Earnings Scheme at all prisons.

Remission of Sentence : On reception all prisoners are credited with remission of one-third of their sentence, provided that this does not reduce their sentence below one month. The Governor and the Visiting Committee or Board of Visitors have power to order forfeiture of remission for offences against prison discipline.

Stage System : As successive periods of a prisoner's sentence are satisfactorily completed, he becomes entitled to additional privileges.

Education : Subject to such limitations as are imposed by shortage of accommodation and staff, the Prison Commissioners have availed themselves of the assistance of Local Education Authorities and by Voluntary teachers in establishing evening classes in prisons. The educational classes are supplemented by lectures and film shows and prisoners who have a serious desire to improve their qualifications for employment on release have the opportunity to take Correspondence Courses on a wide variety of educational and technical subjects.

Aid on Discharge : Prisoners who are discharged from local prisons are assisted on discharge by Discharged Prisoners Aid Societies, which are local and voluntary bodies supported in part by private benevolence and in part by grants from public funds. The work of the local societies is co-ordinated by the National Association of Discharged Prisoners Aid Societies, which depends on a grant from public funds for its administrative expenses.

The Criminal Justice Act, 1948, largely increased the categories of offenders who are released conditionally on a licence which places them, for the purpose of assisting their rehabilitation, under certain obligations, during the unexpired portion of their sentences. These categories include, as well as Borstal boys and girls, men and women released on licence from sentences of Corrective Training and Preventive Detention, and young persons under 21 released on licence from sentences of imprisonment. In all these cases the Act provides that they should be under the care of an appointed society and the Home Secretary has accordingly approved the establishment of the Central After-Care Association as the society responsible for all statutory after-care.

Borstal Training : The Borstal System was set up by the Prevention of Crime Act, 1908. The Criminal Justice Act, 1948, confirmed the original principles but incorporated the experience of the intervening years. The purpose of the system is to provide facilities for young offenders between 16 and 21 for whom prolonged periods of training appear essential if they are not to become habitual criminals. The sentence of the Court is one of Borstal Training and no period is specified, the offender being released under supervision when the objects of training have been achieved, subject to a maximum period of detention of 3 years. Release is subject

to conditions and if, within the period of supervision, which lasts until four years from the date of sentence, the conditions are not complied with the offender may be recalled.

(d) Juvenile Delinquency

During 1948 the number of children (under 14) and young persons (14-17) found guilty of all types of offence in *Courts of Summary Jurisdiction in England and Wales* was 71,270. During 1948 the number of children and young persons in Scotland against whom a charge was proved with a finding of guilt was 14,024.

The main and deep-seated causes of juvenile delinquency are hardly in doubt, though informed opinion varies as to the immediate reasons for the recent increase. Among what might be described as long-term causes stand out unsatisfactory home conditions (bad and overcrowded housing, family conflicts, neglect, lack of affection and parental interest); the failure to recognise and to treat early enough children who are of sub-normal intelligence or who develop unstable, anti-social characters; and the widespread influence of changing moral standards. Another main cause and one which may often be more readily capable of remedy, is lack of opportunity for and encouragement or guidance in the proper use of leisure. Other factors to which the recent increase in delinquency has been attributed are the shortage or high cost of commodities, and the temptation offered by the display in shops of goods which attract children.

Under the *Children and Young Persons Act, 1933*, children and young persons who have committed offences or who are in need of care or protection are brought before a juvenile court. The London Panel of Justices for the Metropolitan Juvenile Courts is selected by the Secretary of State, who also appoints the chairmen. Outside London the justices appoint from among their number justices specially qualified for dealing with juvenile cases to form a Juvenile Court Panel and from among these justices they select one to act as chairman. A juvenile court must be constituted of not more than three justices from the panel, and must include one man and, so far as practicable, one woman, and must sit either in a different building or room from that in which sittings of courts other than juvenile courts are held, or on different days from those on which sittings of such other Courts are held.

The *Children and Young Persons Act, 1933* (Section 44), provides that every court in dealing with a child or young person who is brought before it, either as being in need of care and protection or as an offender or otherwise, shall have regard to the welfare of the child or young person and shall in a proper case take steps for removing him from undesirable surroundings, and for securing that proper provision is made for his education and training.

The court may, if it considers it desirable in the interests of the child, send him to a remand home so that inquiries can be made into his home circumstances, medical history, and also so that the child may be kept under observation. There are various methods of treatment open to the court. It may put an offender on probation with or without a condition of residence; commit him to an approved school or to the care of the local authority with a view to his being placed with foster-parents; impose a fine, order a payment of damages or costs by the offender or, in suitable circumstances, his parents. The court has other powers of restraint under the *Criminal Justice Act 1948* (see p. 20). One hundred and forty-one Approved Schools are now open. In 1939 some 500 whole-time and 550 part-time Probation Officers were employed in England and Wales. The present figures are 971 whole-time and 139 part-time officers. It must be remembered that the Probation Officer deals with adults as well as juveniles.

In Scotland there are 25 Approved Schools and the number of Probation Officers is 84 (57 whole-time and 25 part time).

To assist the Minister of Defence to discharge his responsibilities for co-ordinating the policies and requirements of the Armed Forces, the following Committees have been set up :—

- (i) The Standing Committee of Service Ministers, which is assisted by two main official committees dealing respectively with Personnel and Administrative questions.
- (ii) The Ministerial Production Committee, which is also assisted by two main official committees :—
 - (a) The Joint War Production Staff, and
 - (b) The Defence Research Policy Committee.

The Standing Committee of Service Ministers considers questions of personnel and administration of common interest to the three Services, and requirements (other than production). The Minister of Defence is Chairman; the members are the Secretaries of State for War and Air, and the First Lord of the Admiralty. The Minister of Defence is also chairman of the Ministerial Production Committee. Its members are the Service Ministers and the Ministers of Supply and Labour. It considers the production requirements of the Services, defence research and development programmes, and questions of war potential. The Joint War Production Staff is composed of senior Service officers and representatives of the Service and Civil departments concerned with production, under a permanent chairman from the staff of the Ministry of Defence. In addition to co-ordinating the production requirements of the Services, the Committee is also responsible for the study of war potential. The Defence Research Policy Committee consists of those responsible from both the operational and scientific point of view for research and development in the Service departments and the Ministry of Supply. Its Chairman is Sir Henry Tizard, an eminent scientist, who serves on the staff of the Minister of Defence.

In addition to his co-ordinating functions as outlined above, the Minister of Defence has also assumed control of certain inter-Service organisations such as Combined Operations Headquarters, the Joint Intelligence Bureau and the Imperial Defence College (see below).

Underlying the conception of the Ministry of Defence is a desire to build on the lessons of the war which illustrated fully the value of inter-Service co-ordination and co-operation. And nowhere is co-operation between the Fighting Services better illustrated than in the system of staff training for officers of the Navy, Army and Air Force. At an early stage of their career they are sent to separate staff colleges at Greenwich, Camberley and Andover respectively where they learn the elements of staff work. At a somewhat later stage in their careers they would, before the war, have been sent to separate staff colleges for more advanced training. Now, however, they proceed to a new Joint Services Staff College at Chesham which was opened in January, 1947, where they live and work together and where full emphasis is laid on the inter-Service aspects of staff work. This College caters for about a hundred students from the Navy, Army and Air Force, the Civil Service and the Commonwealth. Lastly, there is the Imperial Defence College, which caters for a few specially selected senior officers, also from the Services, the Civil Service and the Commonwealth, whose object is, in the words of its late Commandant, Field-Marshal Sir William Slim, "to produce throughout the Empire a body of senior officers of the Fighting Services and civil officials who will be capable of holding high commands and key appointments in the structure of Commonwealth defence, both in peace and war; men who have not only a full grasp of their own special subjects, but a sound knowledge of how those subjects dovetail into the complete Commonwealth effort."

(b) Policy

One of the functions of the Minister of Defence is to present to Parliament annually a general survey of the defence policy which the Government intend to

pursue and of the provision in manpower, material and finance which they propose to make for the Armed Forces and their supply in the ensuing financial year. Thus three White Papers entitled "Statement relating to Defence" (Cmd. 7042, 7327 and 7631) were presented by Mr. Alexander in the months of February, 1947, 1948 and 1949. The first emphasised the essentially transitional nature of the financial year 1947-8 and the many exceptional defence commitments arising from the aftermath of war which the British Forces would be required to undertake throughout the world during that year. At the same time it defined the long-term aims of British defence policy under three important heads—the security of the United Kingdom, the safeguarding of the communications of the Commonwealth, and the provision of any Forces which might be required for use under the Security Council of the United Nations Organisation under Article 43 of the Charter.

The second, in reaffirming these aims, declared that the supreme object of British policy must continue to be the prevention of war, and that forces must be maintained in peace time to deter aggression which might lead to war, whether it was a question of self-defence or of support of the United Nations. In view of the country's economic situation it would be necessary to concentrate our defence effort on essentials. The White Paper then laid down the following principles. The Royal Air Force must be maintained at a level sufficient to preserve its essential structure and its initial striking power. The Royal Navy, with its air arm, must be enabled to perform its vital role in the control of communications and to execute such tasks overseas as are laid upon it. The Army must be in a position to meet its overseas commitments and to provide the organisation needed for training its National Service intake.

The third stressed the importance of Western Union defence co-operation under the Treaty signed at Brussels in March, 1948, by the United Kingdom, France, Belgium, Holland and Luxembourg. It stated that substantial progress in the joint organisation of defence had been made and that the whole-hearted co-operation which had been developed was a good augury for the future. Under the guidance of the Defence Ministers of the Five Powers a Western Union Defence Organisation has been established to provide for the co-ordination of defence measures in the military and supply fields, for the study of the tactical problems of the defence of Western Europe. The Western Union Defence Committee is assisted, on the side of strategy, tactics, plans, training and the like, by the Western Union Chiefs of Staff Committee consisting of one representative of the Chiefs of Staff of each of the Five Powers, and on military supply and defence production questions by the Western Union Military Supply Board which also consists of one representative of high standing from each country. Each of these two high-level Committees has a permanent staff located in London, consisting of full-time delegations from the Five Powers. The heads of the military delegations form a standing committee (the Military Committee) which directs the work of the military staffs; similarly, the heads of the supply delegations form a standing committee (the Supply Executive Committee) which co-ordinates and directs the work of the supply organisation on behalf of and under the guidance of the Military Supply Board. Representatives of the U.S.A. and Canada attend meetings of the Western Union Defence Organisation Committees and Sub-Committees. Secretarial Services for the Committees and Sub-Committees are provided by a full-time Secretariat staffed by officials and serving officers of the Five Powers.

Also working under the direction of the Western Union Chiefs of Staff Committee is the Commanders-in-Chief Committee whose main task is to study the tactical problems of defence in Western Europe. The Chairman of the Committee is Field-Marshal Viscount Montgomery of Alamein.

The Government announced towards the end of 1946 its decision that conscription must be continued when the current *National Service Acts* expired at the

end of 1948. As the Prime Minister said in the House of Commons on 12th November, 1946: "The development of modern warfare has made this country more vulnerable. We can be reached by attack from the Continent. While in the past we always had a long breathing-space on which we could depend, that breathing-space is most unlikely to be available should any war arise in the future. The logic of that is that while we keep our front line forces as low as we can consonant with efficiency and the jobs they have to do, we must have trained reserves who can take their part right away without waiting for six months' training."

The *National Service Act, 1948*, and its amending Act, provide as from 1st January, 1949, for full-time compulsory service of 18 months by men between the ages of 18 and 26, followed by a period in the Territorial Army or other appropriate Reserve. It does not apply to women, though it has been decided that the women's services shall continue on a voluntary basis (*see p. 27*). Nor does the Act apply to Northern Ireland.

(c) Strength

(i) General

The strength of the Armed Forces, including men and women, but excluding personnel enlisted abroad, has risen and fallen since 1938 as follows:—

Year	Total	Royal Navy	Army	Royal Air Force
Mid 1938	385,000	113,000	199,000	73,000
Mid 1939	480,000			
Mid 1945 (peak)	5,090,000			
Mid 1946	2,032,000			
Mid 1947	1,302,000			
Mid 1948	846,400	143,100	465,800	237,500
Mid 1949	769,900	144,000	406,000	219,900

In addition to the 769,900 members of the Armed Forces in mid-1949 238,700 civilians were directly employed by the Service Departments, and a further 450,000 engaged in production, research, development and works.

The number of men and women released from the Armed Forces between June, 1945, and March, 1949, was 5,543,960.

(ii) Royal Navy

The Royal Navy is second in power only to that of the United States. Its strength in ships at the beginning of 1949 has been given in the Navy Estimates 1949-50 as follows:—

	Active Fleet	Training and Experimental, etc. (Special Complements)	In Reserve or Reducing to Reserve (not including ships for disposal)	In course of Construction*
BATTLESHIPS	Duke of York Vanguard	Anson King George V Howe (a)	—	—
FLEET CARRIERS	Implacable	Victorious Illustrious	Indefatigable Formidable Indomitable (a)	2
LIGHT FLEET CARRIERS	Ocean Triumph Vengeance Theseus	Warrior Glory (a)	—	8

(cont. overleaf)

ESCORT CARRIERS	—	—	Compania	
CRUISERS	15	2	12	3
DESTROYERS	33	20	65 (b)	8
FRIGATES	25	19	129 (c)	1
MONITORS	—	—	2	—
SUBMARINES	30	4	31 (d)	—
MINESWEEPERS	14	2	50	—
FAST MINELAYERS	—	—	3	—

*Work on some ships temporarily suspended. (For details see Navy Estimates 1949-50, pages 235-237.)

(a) Refitting.

(b) Includes 3 for transfer to Royal Indian Navy and 2 for transfer to Royal Pakistan Navy.

(c) Includes 2 for transfer to Royal New Zealand Navy.

(d) Includes 2 on loan to Royal Netherlands Navy.

In July, 1949, the Admiralty announced that in view of the fact that very few large surface ships were being kept operational anywhere in the world, and in order to increase the number of smaller vessels (destroyers, frigates, mine-sweepers) in commission H.M.S. Vanguard would join the Training Squadron, and the Anson, Duke of York and Howe (on completion of refit) would be reduced to Reserve.

Capital ships, however, whether in Reserve or otherwise are available for operational duty if the occasion demands.

The Royal Naval Volunteer Reserve consists of 12 Divisions, which provide training for sea service. The Royal Naval Volunteer (Wireless) Reserve, consisting of Specialist Officers, Wireless Operators and Radio Electricians, will have 29 centres open by April, 1950. There are also four R.N.V.R. Air Squadrons with an establishment of 100 pilots and observers (officers) and approximately 700 maintenance ratings.

(iii) Army

The T.A. was reconstituted on 1st January, 1947, and now forms part of the National Army.

The role of the T.A. on the outbreak of war will be :—

(a) To provide the great bulk of the A.A. and Coast Defences of the U.K., and the reinforcements in those arms required at our ports and airfields overseas.

(b) To provide with the active army a Field Force wherever required.

(c) To support the civil defence organisation in their task of minimising the effects of enemy air attack.

From the outbreak of war, the Regular and Territorial Armies will be integrated as a whole. In the U.K. the combined resources of Regular and Territorial units will be used together to meet initial operational requirements, and to provide the framework for subsequent expansion.

Until 1950 the Territorial Army will consist, as heretofore, of volunteers, but from then on there will be an increasing number of National Service men completing their terms of service in its ranks (see p. 25).

The Territorial Army consists of three corps comprising two Armoured, six Infantry and one Airborne Division, together with Independent Armoured and Infantry Brigades, Artillery and Engineer Formations and requisite Corps and Army Troops.

The force in Northern Ireland will remain on a voluntary basis, because, as already stated (p. 25), the National Service Act does not apply there.

(iv) *Royal Air Force*

No up-to-date figures of the strength in squadrons of the Royal Air Force are available.

The Royal Auxiliary Air Force has been re-formed with 20 short-range fighter squadrons, 5 air observation post squadrons, 12 light anti-aircraft squadrons of the Royal Auxiliary Air Force Regiment, and 26 fighter control units for raid reporting and control of raid interception, the latter being open to women.

The Royal Air Force Volunteer Reserve began recruiting ex-pilots in March, 1947, and has since extended this by entering men as navigators and signallers and for ground duties. Women are not only recruited for ground duties; a considerable number of women, mostly former A.T.A. pilots, have joined for flying. The R.A.F.V.R. now has 24 reserve centres and 20 flying schools covering most of the densely populated areas and there are plans to open further centres.

Fourteen university air squadrons are also operating, compared with three pre-war. These form part of the R.A.F.V.R.

The Royal Observer Corps, which identifies and plots enemy aircraft and is thus as essential to Fighter Command as are the Auxiliary fighter control units, also resumed recruiting in 1947, and at the end of August, 1949, had over 14,000 members.

(v) *Women's Services*

As stated above (p. 25) it has been decided that the Women's Services shall continue on a voluntary basis: the Women's Royal Army Corps (formerly the Auxiliary Territorial Service) and the Women's Royal Air Force (formerly the Women's Auxiliary Air Force) have been incorporated in the Army and the Royal Air Force respectively. The Women's Royal Naval Service has never been declared a part of the Armed Forces in the same way as the other two services, and it remains technically a civilian organisation.

Women in these and in the Forces Nursing Services numbered in mid-1949 32,500.

(vi) *Civil Defence*

The functions of the Minister of Defence do not extend to Civil Defence, which embraces a large number of activities such as civil food supplies, transport, hospitals, and so on, which do not directly affect the Armed Forces. The Defence Committee provides the link between home security problems and broad defence policy, and, to deal with the former, a Home Defence Committee has been set up under the aegis of the Home Office on which various Civil departments as well as the Service departments are represented. On 19th December, 1947, the Prime Minister gave the outline of a new Civil Defence organisation which would consist in part of military mobile columns trained in civil defence duties, and on 16th December, 1948, the Civil Defence Act became law.

5. TOWN AND COUNTRY PLANNING

(a) *Three Basic Reports*

The considerable history of town and country planning during the past eight years can be split up roughly into the following three divisions, viz. :—

- (a) The original impetus given by the Barlow Report on the Location of Industry and the Distribution of the Industrial Population; and the "follow-up" represented by the Scott Report on Land Utilisation in Rural Areas and the Uthwatt Report on Compensation and Betterment; and the Government's response to these three Reports, 1943-1946.
- (b) The actual steps taken towards the replanning of towns and cities.
- (c) The passing of the *Town and Country Planning Acts*, 1947.

The Barlow Report. The Report of the Commission (Chairman : Sir Montague Barlow) on the Distribution of the Industrial Population was presented to Parliament in January, 1940, and provided a starting point for a new conception of the planned use of land.

Its immediate effects were seen in (i) the special mandate given to the Minister of Works and Planning to consider what machinery and legislation would be necessary for carrying out the reconstruction of town and countryside after the war, (ii) the authorisation extended to him to proceed with his preparatory work on the premise that national planning under a Central Authority would be part of the national policy, and (iii) the setting up of other expert committees to study two of the most important questions raised by the Report, viz., the effect of the main proposals upon rural areas and the problem of compensation and betterment.

The Scott Report. The Report of the Committee (Chairman : Lord Justice Scott) on Land Utilisation in Rural Areas was presented to Parliament in August, 1942, and dealt with measures needed to revitalise the rural areas so that they might absorb a certain amount of urban encroachment without loss to their characteristic way of life. The main recommendations of the Report were concerned with the need for maintaining good agricultural land and preserving natural amenities.

The Uthwatt Report. The Report of the Expert Committee (Chairman : Mr. Justice Uthwatt) on Compensation and Betterment was presented to Parliament in September, 1942. After a most thorough investigation into the controversial issue between public and private ownership the Report reached the general conclusion that the only way out of the confusion produced by the existing practice of compensation and betterment was to bring all land affected by planning resolutions into a single ownership; and made a number of proposals designed to bring this change about without undue dislocation of the national economy and way of life.

Government Response. The response by the Government to the Barlow, Scott and Uthwatt Reports was manifested in

- (i) *The establishment of a Central Planning Authority.* This was effected by the passing of the *Ministry of Town and Country Planning Act, February, 1943*, by which the central planning powers were transferred from the Ministry of Works and Buildings to a new Ministry charged with the duty of "ensuring consistency and continuity in the framing and execution of a national policy with respect to the use of the land."
- (ii) *The extension of Interim Planning Control.* This was effected by the passing of the *Town and Country Planning (Interim Development) Act, July, 1943*, which in the first place provided that any land not already covered by a planning scheme should from henceforth be deemed to be covered by a planning resolution (thus bringing all land in the country under interim planning control as recommended in the Uthwatt Report); and in the second place strengthened the position of both the Local Authorities and the Minister in regard to interim development as a whole.
- (iii) *Suggestions of more effective methods for the control of land use.* These were contained in the *White Paper on the Control of Land Use (Cmd. 6537)*, June, 1944, in which an alternative solution to that proposed by the Uthwatt Committee was put forward. The main provisions of the Government Scheme were :

that there should be complete control of the use to which land is put—such control to extend to all land, whether built on or not built on; that when permission to develop or redevelop (which materially increases the value of the land) is given, the owner should pay a betterment charge of 80 per cent on the difference of value due to such permission; that

when permission to develop or redevelop is refused, the owner should be paid fair compensation for any loss of value that existed at 31st March, 1939 ; and

that the payment of compensation as a whole, and the receipt of betterment charges as a whole should be brought into a single central account, so that Local Authorities should be left free to plan the development or redevelopment of their areas with a much greater degree of financial freedom.

The White Paper also listed in detail the future aims of planning policy and proposed that (a) the methods by which land could be bought by Local Authorities for planning purposes should be reformed, and (b) all development rights should be subject to statutory restrictions.

- (iv) *The Introduction of provisions for constructive as opposed to purely restrictive planning.* This was effected by the passing of the *Town and Country Planning Act, November, 1944*, which substantiated the proposals of the White Paper as regards Local Authority powers of land acquisition and the statutory control of development rights.

Under the terms of the Act, Local Authorities were able to purchase by a simpler and more expeditious method than had hitherto been available to them ; (i) areas of " extensive war damage " and land adjacent thereto ; (ii) areas where, although there may not have been any extensive war damage, a similar need arises because there are conditions of bad layout and obsolete development, and in this case also powers can extend to adjacent land ; (iii) land required for the " re-location of population or industry " arising out of the redevelopment of war-damaged or obsolete areas ; and (iv) land required for securing " an appropriate balance of development," e.g., industrial development or community buildings in a town where the proportion of these in relation to other development is too low ; the provision of public open spaces or playing fields, etc. The Act also provides for a heightened degree of collaboration between Local Planning Authorities of various kinds, and contains clauses amending the planning code in a number of important respects, e.g., agricultural buildings, hitherto exempt, may now be made subject to the provisions of a planning scheme and thus come under Interim Development Control.

[Associated with the *Town and Country Planning Act, 1944*, is the *Acquisition of Land (Authorisation Procedure) Act, 1946*, which in the first place provides " a uniform compulsory purchase order procedure for authorising Local Authorities, and certain Departments for specified purposes, to purchase land compulsorily for purposes covered by powers under the Town and Country Planning Act, 1944 " and in the second place " for a temporary period a speedy procedure to authorise the proper authorities as specified to enter on and take possession of land in advance of purchase in urgent cases for purposes for which they could otherwise be authorised to purchase the land compulsorily." Under the Act, Local Authorities are able to serve notice on a site and take possession within fourteen days.]

(b) Replanning in Action

Few results of replanning can as yet be recorded. Land development or redevelopment, the provision or revision of basic services, and the erection or demolition of buildings require not only legislation to make them possible, but a labour force, a wealth of raw materials and financial reserves not yet available in post-war Britain in sufficient strength or quantity. Certain essential preliminary measures however have been, and continue to be, taken. For example :—

- (i) *The number of Local Authorities with planning powers has been reduced from 1,441 to 146—the councils of counties and county boroughs—as an indispensable step towards securing that the broad design of territorial development shall be drawn by a manageable team of local planning authorities covering, singly or in combination, sufficiently wide areas.*
- (ii) *Special planning consultants have been appointed for six Government "development areas"—West Cumberland, South Wales, the North-East, South Lancashire, the Scottish Development area, and Wrexham in Wales. These appointments were made with the concurrence of the relevant Local Planning Authorities for the purpose of ensuring that any changes brought about by development under the *Distribution of Industry Act, 1945* "should conform with a general physical plan for the region based on a comprehensive survey of all the problems concerned."*
- (iii) *Various expert committees have been studying and/or making recommendations regarding certain aspects of the existing or proposed planning provisions. These Committees include: The Central Advisory Committee on Estate Development and Management, which was appointed in June, 1945; The National Parks Committee, which was appointed in July, 1945; The Scottish National Parks Committee, which was appointed in January, 1946; The New Towns Committee, which was jointly appointed by the Minister of Town and Country Planning and the Secretary of State for Scotland in October, 1946 (this Committee published two interim Reports, the recommendations of which were adopted in part in the *New Towns Act, 1946*; and a Final Report upon which no Government decision has yet been taken); The Advisory Committee on Buildings of Special Architectural or Historic Interest, which was appointed in October, 1945; The Advisory Committee for London Regional Planning, which was appointed in October, 1946; and a Committee appointed to study the qualifications needed by town planners having regard to the present and prospective scope of Town and Country Planning, which was appointed in June, 1948.*
- (iv) *Government approval has been given to a programme of map production which has been described as "the most comprehensive survey ever undertaken of the national life and resources of Great Britain." This programme includes:—*

The rapid publication (from existing material) of maps, partly of a provisional nature, incorporating revision carried out during and immediately before the war and depicting geographical and physical structure; land use; mining and mineral resources; industry; administrative areas; population; communication; public utility undertakings and other information, most of which has never previously been published or even collated.

The re-survey on a national basis of all built-up areas.

The overhaul, and recasting on a national basis, of large-scale plans outside built-up areas.

The survey of contours at a vertical interval of 25 feet.

Maps so far published in pursuance of this programme are:

The topographical *Base Map*, which serves as a standard underprint to all other maps except one.

A *Topography Map*, which forms a useful physical background for such subjects as roads and railways.

The Population Density (1931) Map, which represents a modification of a similar map published previously on a smaller scale.

The Population of Urban Areas (1933) Map, which shows the distribution of the urban population.

The Administrative Areas Map, which shows by various colours and tints the boundaries in England and Wales of the Administrative Counties, County, Municipal and Metropolitan Boroughs, and Urban and Rural Districts; and in Scotland, the boundaries of Counties, large and small Burghs and District Council Areas.

The Land Utilisation Map, which presents a generalised picture of the land use of Great Britain before the second world war and shows the response of farming to physical and economic controls.

The Types of Farming Map, which shows 17 main types in England and Wales, and five predominant types in Scotland divided into 13 sub-types.

The Land Classification Map, which indicates inherent fertility and divides the land into ten main types according to its quality and agricultural value.

The Grasslands of England and Wales Map, which indicates where a progressive agricultural policy can affect the up-grading of pasture land in Britain.

The Coal and Iron Map, which shows the coalfields, distinguishing the exposed fields, concealed fields where the seams dip beneath younger rocks, fields not yet worked, and iron fields. Generalised geological sections appear as insets.

The Iron and Steel Map, which also shows the coal and iron fields, and the location and capacity of all works, distinguishing blast furnaces and steel works of open hearth and Bessemer and electric types. Coke ovens and limestone quarries are shown, those owned by the iron and steel industries being distinguished in both cases.

The Roads Map, which shows the Trunk Routes in distinctive colours. Each road bears the approved number of the Ministry of Transport, and the map also shows the ferries and the telephone boxes of the A.A. and the R.A.C.

The Railway Map, which shows the main and other systems distinguished by standard colours, and the number of tracks shown by three thicknesses of lines.

The Electricity Statutory Supply Areas Map, which distinguishes Local Authority and Company ownerships, Power Companies and Joint Electricity Authorities. Each undertaking is named and the area of distribution rights of Power Companies indicated.

The Geological Map, which shows sedimentary formations.

Two Population Maps, which show first the total changes in population in England, Wales and Scotland between 1921 and 1931; and secondly, the total changes in population in England and Wales between 1931 and 1939, and in Scotland between 1931 and 1938.

the Local Authorities concerned they are satisfied that it is in the national interest that the land should be so developed.

- (2) Authorises the Minister and the Secretary of State for Scotland to establish Corporations for the development of new towns, once the site has been designated.
- (3) Provides that the Minister and Secretary of State may by a Special Interim Development Order grant permission for all development which conforms with the plan for the New Town proposed by the Corporation and approved by him.
- (4) Provides that every corporation may acquire, hold, manage or dispose of any land or other property as they consider expedient for securing the development of a new town in accordance with the proposals which the Minister has approved, and subject to the limitation that no freehold or lease exceeding 99 years may be granted, except with the consent of the Minister, who must be satisfied that there are exceptional circumstances rendering such disposal expedient.
- (5) Provides that every corporation may provide water, electricity, gas, sewerage and other services but subject to the same control by Parliament as exists over other corporations. (It is intended that so far as possible the corporation should provide these services only where they cannot suitably be provided by existing statutory undertakers.)
- (6) Lays down that every corporation shall be deemed a housing association within the meaning of the Housing Act, and moreover should receive in respect of each working-class house which it itself provides, i.e., not under an agreement with a Local Authority, the annual Exchequer contributions payable under the *Housing (Financial and Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, 1943*, to Local Authorities.
- (7) Lays down that every corporation must from time to time submit to the Minister in accordance with any directions given by him in that behalf their proposals for the development of the New Town, and further shall submit an annual report to the Minister dealing generally with their operations, which reports shall be laid before each House of Parliament. Annual accounts must also be prepared and submitted to Parliament.
- (8) Provides that when the purposes for which the corporation was established have been substantially achieved the Minister may make an order dissolving such corporation and transferring its activities to a Local Authority.

The capital cost of developing a New Town area will be advanced from the Consolidated Fund to each corporation, who will be responsible for repayment on terms approved by the Treasury.

- (vii) *Proposals for the Social Structure of the intended New Towns* have been put forward. These proposals, which were contained in the *Final Report of the New Towns Committee* (July, 1946), do not aim at any uniform physical or social structure for New Towns and recommend that full latitude for variety and experiment should be allowed. They cover such points as population, balanced social composition, choice of site (with due regard for national and local considerations), zoning of towns for industrial and other purposes, neighbourhood grouping of residential areas with the necessary provision of shops and public buildings, relations with the surrounding country, transport and services, the provision of social services and churches and of recreational facilities.

(viii) *A considerable number of New Towns have been designated, and their Development Corporations have been appointed. Some of these towns, such as Aycliffe, Easington, and (in Scotland) East Kilbride, are designed to meet immediate industrial needs and the needs of mining areas, and work on them is going ahead within the limits of the housing programme. Others, such as Crawley, Hemel Hempstead, Welwyn Garden City, Basildon and Stevenage are principally intended to provide for the overspill from large and congested cities; and although plans have already been completed in many cases, material progress has necessarily been rather slow. Work has however started in connection with the provision of water, sewerage and roads, and one or two of the Corporations are going ahead with physical construction.*

In May, 1949, five of the Development Corporations published their first Reports, showing what had been done, and outlining their future plans.

(c) The 1947 Acts

In addition to these preliminary measures, two new planning Acts (in England and Wales, the *Town and Country Planning Act, 1947*; and in Scotland, the *Town and Country Planning (Scotland) Act, 1947*) have received Royal Assent, and have become part of the planning law of the land.

The purpose of the new law is to establish an orderly, equitable and easily operated land use control system based on present-day ideas and requirements. With this aim in view it repeals or consolidates all existing planning legislation (with the exception of the *Ministry of Town and Country Planning Act, 1943*, those parts of the *Town and Country Planning Act, 1944*, concerned with the redevelopment of specified areas, and the *New Towns Act, 1946*), and introduces a number of new provisions designed to remove some of the most serious pre-war obstacles to good national and local planning.

Under the terms of the Acts, the old "planning scheme" system set up by the *Town and Country Planning Act, 1932*, and the *Town and Country Planning (Scotland) Act, 1932*, has been replaced by a system of "development plans" for the whole country along the lines laid down by the *Town and Country Planning Act, 1944*, for certain specified areas. These plans, in which the broad lines of the finished picture are to be shown, must be drawn up and submitted to the Minister by every Local Planning Authority within three years after a day appointed by the Minister under the Act.

The Local Planning Authorities for this purpose are the County Councils, the County Borough Councils, or where county boundaries do not compose suitable units, Joint Planning Boards. In order to cater for purely local needs it will be incumbent upon the Local Planning Authority at each stage to consult the District Councils, who will in the last instance be responsible for putting the plans into effect.

Local Planning Authorities are allowed to set up Planning Committees to take over any or all of their planning functions except the power to borrow money or levy a rate; and these Planning Committees may set up sub-committees of their own.

If any Local Planning Authority is, for any reason, unable or unwilling to prepare a development plan within the given time limit, its powers may either be taken over by the central authority or transferred to another Local Planning Authority who has an interest in the area concerned.

Before any development plan is submitted to the Minister, it must be given wide publicity so that persons whose land is thereby affected may have due warning of what is intended; and before the Minister gives his approval to any plan, a public inquiry or other hearing may be held. Every development plan will have to be reviewed at five-yearly intervals, so that it can if necessary be reviewed in detail

to meet changed conditions, but once it has been approved and published, it cannot be challenged in the Courts, unless legal action is initiated within six weeks of the date of publication.

The majority of Local Authorities have already completed the Survey of their areas and are at present engaged in drawing up their County Development plans.

Under the Act, Local Authorities have power to develop themselves any land acquired by compulsory purchase without first offering it to private enterprise. The basis of compensation payable for land so acquired will be the current market value of the property, restricted to its existing use. Where an interest in the property carries with it the right of vacant possession, it will be dealt with as if there were a lease terminating on 1st January, 1954, interposed between the purchaser and his right to vacant possession.

Local authorities who buy land for immediate development will be responsible for paying for it (aided in some cases by grants from the Exchequer) since they will benefit from its increased value within a foreseeable length of time.

Almost all other development rights are the property of the State and are, in effect, saleable by the Central Land Board to developers.

Under the Act all land, including buildings upon it, pass from owner to owner at the value for the use to which it is actually being put at the time of sale.

If the owner then wishes to develop the land and has the permission of the local planning authority to do so, the increased value of that land is to be paid to the State and collected by the Central Land Board. Such a sum will be known as a Development Charge.

The sum of £300,000,000 has been allotted to be divided among owners whose property is depreciated by the Act, by loss of potential development value, and part of the Board's task is to settle claims. The final date for claims from the fund will be 30th June, 1949. Owners wishing to develop land must first obtain permission from the planning authority and apply for a determination of the development charge. The Board will let the owner know the amount of the charge within a month of receiving the application.

The effect of these provisions will be (a) to enable Local Authorities to decide on the best use of land without taking the cost of compensation for loss of development rights into account and (b) to stabilise the price of land at, or at about, its value for existing use, for the purchaser, in reckoning how much he can afford to give for land, will naturally subtract the sum that he will have to pay to the Central Land Board before he can begin to develop it.

(d) Parks and Footpaths

(i) *National Parks* : The conservation of extensive areas of beautiful and relatively wild country is one of the main objectives of town and country planning. In these areas the characteristic landscape beauty is strictly preserved, access and facilities for public open-air enjoyment are amply provided, wild life, buildings and places of architectural and historic enjoyment are suitably protected and established farming use is effectively maintained.

Ways and means of achieving this objective are discussed by the National Parks Committee in their Report, published July, 1947. This Report advocates :—

- (a) the establishment of twelve National Parks, covering 5,682 square miles in annual instalments of four over a period of three years ;
- (b) the selection of fifty-two additional areas of outstanding landscape beauty, scientific interest or recreational value as Conservation Areas, to be protected by special measures from disfiguring developments ; and
- (c) the maintenance of a coastal path by cliff, bay, dune and estuary round the whole of England and Wales.

Detailed proposals concerning the administrative and executive machinery needed for putting this programme into effect, and estimates of costs over a ten-year period are also contained in the Report. No date for its implementation can at present be given, but it is hoped that a start will be made as soon as the economic situation of the country permits.

A similar Report on the administration and financial measures necessary for the provision of National Parks and the conservation of nature in Scotland was published on 14th November, 1947.

(ii) *Access to the Countryside.* The Report of the Committee appointed by the National Parks Committee in July, 1946, to consider the question of public rights of way in all its aspects was published in September, 1947.

The Report concerned itself with the history and present law relating to footpaths and access to the countryside ; with the survey and determination of rights of way ; with the settlement of disputes ; with the protection and convenience of the public ; with closures and diversions ; and with conflicting interests in lands and beaches, shores and inland waters.

It recommended that a national survey should be made of all rights of way, and that legislation should be introduced to give the public the greatest possible freedom of access to cultivated as well as uncultivated land, whether mountain, moor, heath, down, cliff, beach, shore, or, in certain cases, stretches of inland water.

The Report also advocated the establishment or maintenance of long-distance footpaths, such as the proposed Pennine Way, and the old coastguard paths round the whole coast-line of England and Wales.

On 17th March, 1949, *The National Parks and Access to the Countryside Bill* was presented to Parliament, the main objects of which are to provide for the designation of National Parks and for the establishment of a National Parks Commission ; to confer on the Nature Conservancy and on local authorities powers for the recording, creation, maintenance and improvement of public paths and for the creation of long-distance routes ; to enable the public to have access to open country ; to confer further powers for preserving and enhancing the natural beauty of the countryside, and to provide for Exchequer assistance towards these purposes. The Bill received the Royal Assent on December 16th, 1949.

6. PUBLIC CORPORATIONS AND NATIONALISATION

(a) Public Enterprise

In Britain, the sphere of public enterprise should be distinguished from that of national ownership. Before the war the chief examples of public enterprise were the various public corporations such as the Metropolitan Water Board, the Port of London Authority, the B.B.C., the London Passenger Transport Board, and the Central Electricity Board. To this list might be added also the many statutory Conservancy Boards ; the Catchment Boards associated with the Land Drainage Act, 1930 ; the local port and harbour authorities for the larger estuaries such as the Clyde Navigation Trust, the Mersey Harbour Board, the Tyne Improvement Commission, and especially the Port of London Authority. And the list might be continued with such varied institutions as the semi-public Marketing Boards set up under the Agricultural Marketing Acts, 1930-1933, or the Herring Industry Board and the White Fish Commission. Lastly, account could be taken of the public enterprises of local authorities in gas, water, electricity and transport.

All these bodies were established or authorised by legislation and specially charged to serve the public interest, and all ranked as public or semi-public bodies. There is thus a long history in Britain of what may be termed public enterprise, a history marked pre-eminently by the traditional British capacities for preserving the best of the past in new institutional forms, for an empirical approach, and for variety of solution. The examples given in the preceding paragraph emphasise the

astonishing versatility of form that has grown up with these bodies. In every case a special study is necessary in order to evaluate the particular sense in which each may be said to be a public enterprise, e.g., its powers in relation to the powers of central or local Government, the disposition of financial control, the powers of appointment, the ownership of assets, or the legal or constitutional relations. All these considerations vary from case to case and frequently from time to time.

In post-war Britain this experimental attitude has been no less marked. Although it has been characterised by an extension of public enterprise into the domain of industry proper, accompanied by some measure of public ownership, the same variety of approach can be observed. Moreover, there are, in addition to the publicly owned services (see below) a number of new and interesting forms of public or semi public enterprise. Among these may be mentioned the North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board, the Overseas Food Corporation, the Colonial Development Corporation, the reconstituted Herring Industry Board, the Agricultural Land Commission, the Central Land Board, the British Tourist and Holidays Board, the Raw Cotton Commission, the Northern Ireland Transport Board, the Northern Ireland Housing Trust. Officially sponsored and partly owned by the Bank of England, there are two interesting financial institutions—the Finance Corporation for Industry and the Industrial and Commercial Finance Corporation—both with special functions in the finance of industry (see below p. 67). Again the Royal Ordnance factories now have a special programme in the field of civilian manufacture, and industrial trading estates are now operated directly by the Board of Trade in certain parts of Britain, in continuation of the policy of special assistance to certain areas pursued before the war but now contained in the more embracing policy of the Distribution of Industry Act, 1945.

The process of experiment in public enterprise began as far back as 1902, but with a few exceptions the early public corporations were not on a national scale; nor did they involve national ownership. Continuous efforts were made to find a formula of management which would harmonise public responsibility in the use of economic resources and for the provision of public services with the steady pursuit of long-range commercial and industrial objectives. Various expedients which had already been tried in the country, such as municipal management or control by a joint stock company with the State or a Local Authority as the sole or predominant shareholder, were, for one reason or another, rejected as unsuitable in the case of certain types of public service. For these a new method was finally adopted by which each concern was managed by a public board of Directors established by statute or charter and granted the fullest possible freedom of action within the limits of general Parliamentary control.

The administrative machinery set up in each case was frankly experimental. It was planned in each case to carry out a specific task, and the size and composition of the Boards varied, as did the manner of their appointment, according to the nature and extent of the responsibilities and duties with which they were charged. The two most usual variations were the "mixed interest" agency, composed largely of members representing the interest served, with a small admixture of members attending on behalf of central and local authorities, and, in some cases, of members appointed by a central department to represent the interests of labour; and what may be called the "classic" type of corporation, managed by "a corporate board of ability" with no direct interest in the undertaking.

The "mixed interest" Corporation included the local port and harbour authorities, notably the Port of London Authority, and were usually preferred where, as in the ports, the consumers of their services were organised in compact groups with localised and, in the main, common interests. On the other hand, services used by all sections of the population in all parts of the country, such as those provided by

the British Broadcasting Corporation, were as a rule managed by the non-representative or "classic" type of Board. Both types had their advantages, and the existence of both is said to have been amply justified by results. A brief note on some of them will serve to illustrate these points.

The Metropolitan Water Board. This was established under the Metropolitan Water Act, 1902, to take over and manage the undertakings of eight competing water companies which had previously attempted to provide an adequate supply of constant pure water in the London area. Responsibility for all water provision in the metropolitan area was placed in the hands of the Board, which consists of 66 voluntary part-time members who are the elected representatives of the various Local Authorities within the Board's area of operation. The Chairman and Vice-Chairman are elected by the Board, and these officials may be paid. Re-election of the whole Board takes place every three years.

The Port of London Authority. The Port of London Authority was created by the Port of London Act in 1908 to supplant the then competing dock companies. It has a governing body consisting of traders and local authorities, Ministerial nominees, and one person with a special knowledge of labour problems. Of its members 18 are elected by payers of port and dock dues, and the remainder (between 10 and 12) are appointed by the Minister of Transport, the First Lord of the Admiralty, the London County Council, the City Corporation and Trinity House. The Chairman and Vice-Chairman may be elected or appointed members, or they may be co-opted from outside by other members of the Authority.

The British Broadcasting Corporation. The British Broadcasting Corporation was formed in 1927 to remove a public broadcasting service from the hands of a private company. The Corporation was created by Royal Charter in order to signify freedom from Parliamentary control or Ministerial interference. The conditions under which the Corporation would operate and the percentage of licence revenue which it should receive were specified in a Licence and Agreement made between the Postmaster-General and the Corporation. These three instruments, the Charter, the Licence, and the Agreement, were renewed with some modification in 1936 for a further period of ten years, and again in 1946 for a term of five years. The Corporation has a salaried Board of Governors, consisting of a full-time Chairman and Vice-Chairman and not more than five additional part-time members appointed by the Crown from among persons widely representative of the general public, for a period of not more than five years. In financial matters, the British Broadcasting Corporation is under a greater degree of public control than the Corporations described above, for in times of heavy expenditure the share of the licence receipts which the Post Office allows it to take may be inadequate, and it may have to be subsidised from Exchequer funds. The annual accounts have to be approved by the Postmaster-General and laid before Parliament (see p. 154).

Among other important examples of Public Corporations set up in the period 1902-1939 were the Central Electricity Board (1926) and the London Passenger Transport Board (1933). Details of these have not been included as they have since been absorbed by the British Electricity Authority and the Transport Commission respectively (see pp. 80 and 138).

(b) Public Ownership and Nationalisation

The policy of public ownership was introduced by the present Government in 1945. This policy is usually termed nationalisation or socialisation, by which is meant public ownership combined with an exclusive or near-exclusive right to conduct certain operations. It is clear from the preceding notes that nationalisation has emerged from a long history of public control and public enterprise.

In origin it is a social policy ; as applied it necessarily represents a body of ideas concerning economic organisation. It is not possible here to present in detail the considerations arising from these two aspects. There are, however, two important points. Firstly, the greater part of British industry remains under private enterprise. (It should be noted that iron and steel is the only manufacturing industry on the present programme of nationalisation.) Secondly, the organisation of nationalised industries contained in the legislation that has been passed relates to their administrative organisation, not their technical organisation. Generally speaking, they are public corporations in the charge of Boards appointed by a Minister, and operating within a broad administrative framework laid down in Acts ; and the general approach has been to adapt the form of ownership and management in each case according to the circumstances of the particular industry. The nature of public control by Parliament or by the Minister concerned, that is to say, the constitutional and legal position of these bodies, is a matter of particular definition in each case ; and in fact is of necessity only beginning to emerge with the establishment of precedent and case-law as is customary with British institutions.

(i) *Structure of the Corporations*

Like the earlier institutions, the Corporations for nationalised industries have not been modelled on a single design. In framing their constitution, it was decided to follow the example of the past, and, while taking into account certain general requirements and certain basic principles of business organisation, to devise each Corporation in relation to the particular task to be done. It was also decided that the members of the new Boards should share with those of Boards set up before the war the freedom from the necessity incumbent upon Civil Servants so to conduct their affairs that they can be ready at all times to answer Parliamentary questions upon details of everyday management.

The radical difference between the post-war Corporations and their pre-war predecessors lies in the size and the importance of the services and industries for which they are responsible. The National Coal Board (see below p. 78), the British Transport Commission (see below p. 138), and (possibly) the British Electricity Authority (see below p. 80), are larger than any similar undertaking in any part of the world, and the success of their operations is fundamental to the success of British industry. Because of this, and because the amount of public money placed at their disposal is very much greater than was ever at the disposal of the Corporations in the pre-war days, the post-war Corporations are so constituted as to be subject to a stricter measure of public control.

The recently created Boards are all of the "classic" or non-representative kind. Consumer interests have no place in them though provision is made for Consultative Councils on which consumers' interests are represented. That and the fact that they are all appointed by the Minister to whom they are ultimately responsible and from whom they are subject to directions on matters closely touching the national interest are the two factors outside the question of their accountability, which they have rigidly in common. In other ways, and particularly in the extent and method of organisation laid down in the Acts of State which established them, there are considerable differences between them. The National Coal Board, for instance, was given its central organisation and left to work out all the details of decentralisation and regional and local administration for itself. Transport, on the other hand, was organised functionally from the start with due regard to all the services and activities involved. The Electricity Act provided for a strong central body with semi-autonomous area boards, on the ground that while the generation of electricity could best be organised from the centre, distribution could be more efficiently managed on a regional basis. Finally, the Gas Act (see below p. 79) provided a structure for the gas industry, which takes into account the fact that the manufacture

and supply of gas have always been of primarily local concern, and therefore gives greater importance and greater powers to the area boards than to the central Gas Councils. In every case, an attempt has been made to create the kind of organisation best suited to the enterprise in question. Time and experience alone can show the measure of its success.

(ii) *Public Accountability of the Corporations*

The public corporations are business undertakings in which the community through Parliament is the equity shareholder. They are at the same time monopolist undertakings subject to most of the temptations of monopolies. It was, therefore, considered of the greatest importance that some means should be found which, while leaving them free to conduct their business properly, would make the Corporations sufficiently accountable to the public as a whole.

- (1) *To the Minister.* The various Acts establishing the Corporations all contain provisions aimed at maintaining this essential balance. In each case the appropriate Minister is responsible for appointing the Boards and is given powers to issue directions to them in matters closely touching the national interest; for while it is probable that the efficiency of the Corporations would not be increased if their every move were scrutinised in Parliament, it is clear that where any of their operations enter the international sphere or closely affect the internal economy of the nation, the State, through the Minister, must be in a position to guide their activities and to ensure that the policy which they follow conforms with the overriding national interest.
- (2) *To Parliament.* So far as accountability to Parliament is concerned, an endeavour is being made, for reasons already stated, to ensure that the Boards are judged over a period, and not, as in the case of a Government Department, on every administrative and executive action. Opportunities for discussing the activities of the Corporations are at present given (i) during the normal Estimates debate procedure (this will apply particularly in the case of the grant-aided Corporations where the actual or estimated grants are assessed annually and included in the annual estimates of the responsible Department); (ii) during the annual review of the Corporation's operations over the previous year, which takes place when the yearly Report and Accounts are presented; and (iii) to a strictly limited extent at Question Time when the Speaker in the exercise of his discretion may "direct the acceptance of Questions asking for a statement to be made on matters about which information has been previously refused, provided that in his opinion the matters are of sufficient public importance to justify the concession."
- (3) *To the Consumer.* Outside Parliament, the interest of the consumer in the efficiency and cheapness of the nationalised services and supplies is provided for by the statutory establishment of Consultative Councils, whose function it is to hear representations from consumers, to consider questions referred by the Minister, and to advise him on how to use his powers of direction in the interest of consumers. If or when these Councils come into conflict with the Boards concerned, arbitration will be the responsibility of the appropriate Minister. In the Transport Act, provision is made both for a quasi-judicial agency—in this case the Transport Tribunal—to deal with fares, charges and facilities, and for a system of advisory bodies to represent the interest of consumers.
- (4) *To the Nation.* The stockholders who provide the initial capital for the operations of the Corporations are safeguarded by the fact that equity in the Corporations vests in the nation, and that Stock issues, being guaranteed

by the Treasury, carry a fixed rate of interest and are redeemable over a period of time. Accountability for proper financial regulation of the Corporations' activities, therefore, lies to the nation rather than to the stockholders and is provided for in the same way as accountability for policy and operational efficiency. In addition, the Minister is given considerable discretionary powers over the finances of the Corporations, and prior Treasury approval is normally required for all major financial transactions affecting their capital holdings.

Whether these measures of accountability will prove adequate to harmonise the claims of the public in their dual role of owner and consumer with the pressing need of the Corporations to be able to operate with the greatest possible amount of managerial freedom remains to be seen.

(iii) *The Problem of Efficiency*

The Corporations are still in the experimental stage, and many of the details of their organisation and activities can be settled in a final form only when sufficient experience has been gained to show the advantages and disadvantages of the original systems.

Nationalisation by means of the Public Corporation has the important initial advantage of being adaptable to circumstances and to change. It also has the advantage of being an innovation which does not represent a complete break-away with the past. On the other hand, as an institution, the Corporation has many aspects which are as yet unexplored and is faced with many problems which are as yet unsolved. Of these problems, the problem of efficiency is perhaps the most pressing, for while it is generally accepted that a way must be found to ensure that the monopolistic Public Corporations operating in reasonable seclusion will stand comparison with the best commercial achievements, no decision has yet been reached as to what that way should be or what tests should be applied.

The financial test is intended to provide one incentive to efficiency, for it is generally laid down that the Corporations must pay their way, and to do so, they will have to conduct their affairs as to be able to build up reserves to meet interest obligations in bad years as well as in good and to face the risks inevitably involved in policies of active development. At the moment, in the early stages of organisation and development, however, the financial incentive is held by many to be insufficient, for many of the services and industries which have been nationalised were in urgent need of reorganisation and re-equipment, and the large-scale investment required for these purposes has been and is still being paid out of public funds. In addition, although one of the objects of nationalisation is to save the public purse, there is actually no statutory provision to preclude recurrent costs being met out of higher charges to the consumer.

In using the Public Corporation as an instrument of nationalisation Britain is, however, using a method which is suited to her constitutional way of life.

Since 1946, the Bank of England, Cable and Wireless, Civil Aviation, the Coal Mines, Inland Transport, Electricity and Gas have passed into public ownership. A Bill to transfer certain parts of the Iron and Steel Industry to public ownership is still before Parliament. (Details of the organisation of the various Corporations established to control and manage them will be found in the appropriate chapters.)

II. ECONOMICS, FINANCE AND INDUSTRY

I. GENERAL ECONOMIC POSITION

(a) Summary

There are a number of permanent features in Britain's economy. These are :

- (i) Overseas sources supply the raw materials needed by industry (the main exceptions being coal, china clay, some low-grade iron ore, some wool and some timber). Raw materials and food together represent more than three-quarters of all imports.
- (ii) Britain produces a little less than half the food her population requires.
- (iii) Consequently the export trade (including "invisible" exports which have been greatly reduced by two world wars) is of vital importance.
- (iv) There is an enormous preponderance of industry and trade relative to agriculture. Outstanding importance attaches to certain basic industries particularly Coal, Iron and Steel, Textiles, and Engineering, upon which the whole of industry and the success of the production and export drives depend. Manufactures constitute three-quarters of exports.

To these permanent features the effects of war have added others of a temporary nature. Of these the most important are :

- (i) The excessive dependence of both Britain, and of other countries from which she normally buys, upon Western Hemisphere supplies.
- (ii) The effect of the high cost of primary products (which form most of Britain's imports) upon the cost of the manufactured goods which form most of her exports.
- (iii) The depletion of Britain's reserves of gold, dollars and dollar equivalents (which also serve other Sterling Area countries).

The paramount aims of economic policy and planning are, briefly stated, to redress the balance of payments as quickly as possible and so to conduct national investment as to provide a permanent solution of the balance of payments problem.

To secure these ends the intention is :

- (i) To reduce the excessive dependence upon the Western Hemisphere as a source of supply (33.5 per cent of imports in 1948), thus reducing the dollar drain.
- (ii) To increase by every means the total of dollar earnings and the proportion of exports going to the Western Hemisphere.
- (iii) To limit total imports to a level considerably below that of 1938.
 - (a) by encouraging greater production and the development of substitutes at home ;
 - (b) by increasing agricultural production by 50 per cent, as compared with pre-war levels (20 per cent above 1946-7 levels) by 1951.
- (iv) To increase exports by greater production and productivity or adjustment of export lines to a volume at least 1½ times as great as in 1938.
- (v) To promote increases in the production of food, raw materials and manufactured goods in Europe and the British Commonwealth, and
- (vi) To maintain the Sterling Area as a multilateral trading group.

(b) Historical Background

For 100 years the people of Britain, having secured a leading position as world manufacturers, merchants, carriers, bankers and investors, were able to support a rapidly increasing population (it more than doubled between 1851 and 1938) at a standard of living which steadily improved. Britain was the world's best customer as a large-scale importer of food and raw materials. The considerable excess of imports over exports was covered by income not only from the various services

(shipping, banking, insurance, etc.) rendered to the world, but also from the overseas investments which had resulted from the "ploughing back" of trading profits during the nineteenth century and the early years of the twentieth century in the form of development loans and investments in many parts of the world.

Furthermore the terms of trade (i.e., the relationship between the general level of prices for which British exports can be sold in world markets and the general level of prices Britain is obliged to pay for imports) had for fifty years up to 1930 moved steadily in Britain's favour. For example, taking as 100 the volume of exports required to purchase a given volume of imports in the years 1881-5, the volume required in the years 1931-5 was only 51—the most favourable position ever attained.

But even before the first world war Britain's share of world trade was dropping (though this was disguised by the fact that its total was increasing), particularly as far as exports were concerned; but invisible exports were still more than adequate to produce an overall favourable balance of payments.

By 1935, however, the first signs of unfavourable balance of overseas payments were to be noted and, in 1938, 8 per cent of imports had to be covered by the sale of assets (see Table 1).

TABLE 1
THE UNITED KINGDOM BALANCE OF PAYMENTS

(£ millions)						
	Pre-1914 Esti- mated Annual Average	1938	1946	1947	1948	1949 1st half (pro- visional)
Total payments for imports	610	835	1,097	1,541	1,768	955
Receipts from exports and re-exports ..	474	533	889	1,100	1,555	907
Balance of trade in goods	-136	-302	-208	-441	-213	-48
Income from overseas investments, ship- ping, banking ser- vices, etc.	N.A.	405	410	399	583	306
Payments of interest abroad, shipping, tourists, etc. ..	N.A.	-157	-287	-381	-374	-189
Net Government ex- penditure overseas	N.A.	- 16	-295	-207	- 96	-79
Balance of "invisi- ble" items	+270	+232	-172	-189	+113	+ 38
Balance of Payments	+134	- 70	-380	-630	-110	-10

This unfavourable change was due to a combination of the effects of certain long-term trends:

- (1) There was increasing competition from newer industrial countries, particularly U.S.A., Germany and Japan. Britain's share of world exports of

manufactures, which was two-fifths in the late 1870's, dropped from one-quarter in 1913 to under one-fifth in 1936-8 ;

- (ii) Britain's pioneer industries, the foundations of her industrial power and wealth, especially coal, steel and cotton, were falling behind in their contribution to exports and were in need of re-equipment. Coal exports dropped from 73 to 40 million tons between 1913 and 1937, iron and steel from 5 to 2.6 million tons and the contribution of Coal and Textiles to exports reckoned as a percentage by value of total exports of U.K. manufactures and produce fell as follows :

		1913	1937	1947	1948
Coal	10%	7%	0%	2.5%	
Textiles ..	38%	26%	19.8%	20.5%	
Total ..	48%	33%	19.8%	23.0%	

- (iii) primary producing countries were tending to encourage the establishment of manufacturing industries. These changes were intensified by the first world war.

The problem was further aggravated after the second world war in a number of ways :

- (i) The acute world shortage of food and raw materials has made the obtaining of supplies difficult and the prices to be paid for them higher. Furthermore, problems of payment have obliged many countries to restrict purchases of some categories of manufactured goods. The unfavourable change in the terms of trade since the very favourable position reached in 1931-5 has been serious for a net importer like Britain. More had to be exported to get the same amount in terms of imports. In 1947 average import prices were 258 per cent higher than in 1938. The cost of raw materials, which were about a third of total imports, had risen to 280 per cent. On the other hand the average level of export prices, expressed as a percentage of 1938, was 222 per cent, and of metal goods, a very important export group, only 198 per cent. Table 2 shows the change based on 1947=100 :

TABLE 2
TERMS OF TRADE (%) 1947=100

	1947	1948				1949	
		1st	2nd	3rd	4th	1st	2nd
Import prices (c.l.f.)	100	108	114	115	117	118	117
Export prices (f.o.b.) ..	100	107	109	111	112	112	113
Terms of trade (%)	100	101	104	104	104	105	103

(1) Since neither the average value index nor the price index is fitted for measuring changes in the terms of trade both over long periods of time and from month to month, the import and export index numbers shown here are the result of combining the two. This gives a measure of the adverse movement in the terms of trade between 1938 and 1947 and from month to month thereafter.

(2) A line indicates an adverse movement.

Both import and export prices continued to rise throughout 1947, the former still more steeply than the latter. By the end of 1948 the price of imported raw materials and semi-manufactures had risen 23 per cent above the 1947 level; it was 27 per cent above in June, 1948. Export prices had risen by 13 per cent and the rate of increase was showing a tendency to slow down.

The figures for 1949 show the first sign of a break in prices. The average price of imports was steady in the first four months at 118 per cent of the 1947 level. It then fell steadily to 112 per cent in the third quarter of 1949. The prices of food and drink fell steadily throughout the year but raw material prices generally only showed signs of falling in mid-1949 primarily because the upward trend in metal prices more than counteracted the downward trend in other material prices for some time.

- (ii) Excessive dependence on the Western Hemisphere, unravaged by war, as a source of supply for manufactured goods as well as food and raw materials has produced in the world an acute dollar shortage which has further aggravated the balance of payments problem. Many countries, especially in Europe, not only ceased to have an export surplus of essential goods, but were faced with a problem of shortages which they sought to make up from the Western Hemisphere.

TABLE 3
DISTRIBUTION OF U.K. BALANCE OF PAYMENTS DEFICIT 1946-49

	1946	1947	1948	1949 1st half (pro- visional)
Dollar Area	-325	-580	-280	-135
Other West. Hemis. ..	- 35	- 75	- 45	+ 25
Sterling Area	- 40	+ 55	+210	+115
O.E.E.C. Countries ..	+ 45	- 25	+ 85	+ 15
Other Countries ..	- 25	- 5	- 80	- 30
Total	-380	-630	-110	- 10

- (iii) The loss of investments (over £1,000 millions were sold during the war) and the accumulation of new sterling debts to the amount of over £3,000 millions meant that Britain's earnings from investments after the war paid for a much lower proportion of imports than before the war; 21 per cent in 1938 compared with less than 4 per cent since 1946.
- (iv) The loss during the war of half the pre-war merchant fleet meant not only the diversion of materials and labour to their replacement but also the destruction of much valuable dollar-earning capacity.
- (v) Overseas commitments meant the diversion of foreign currency from imports. These were particularly heavy in 1947 (£207 millions compared with £16 millions in 1938), when expenditure in Germany and the Middle East was very heavy. In 1948 Government net overseas expenditure had fallen to £96 millions but in the first half of 1949 alone it is provisionally estimated at £79 millions.

The main effect of the second world war was to concentrate into a period of a few difficult years the many necessary adjustments (e.g., the development of new export lines) and extensive reorganisations (e.g., re-equipment) which otherwise might have been carried out gradually over a period of years. This process was seriously impeded by the necessity of taking account of inflationary pressure (which affected Britain no less than other countries) in planning the re-equipment of industry and of making reductions in the capital investment programme. The results achieved in making the necessary adjustments have reflected the comparative success of Britain's anti-inflationary measures.

TABLE 4

PRINCIPAL GROUPS OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS, 1938, 1947, 1948

(i) Imports

The following table (based on declared values) shows that the pattern of import trade changed considerably in 1947 and 1948, and that compared with 1938, food, drink and tobacco and manufactured articles represented a smaller share of the total, whereas raw materials increased in relative importance.

Class	Per cent of Total Value		
	1938	1947	1948
Food, drink and tobacco	46.8	44.8	42.7
Raw materials and articles mainly manufactured	27.0	31.5	32.8
Articles wholly or mainly manufactured	25.4	22.3	23.3

(ii) Exports

The table below shows the contribution to the total value in 1938, 1947 and 1948 of the most important individual groups, figures being given for any group which in any of the three years amounted to 4 per cent of the total. Apart from the increases for the various metal groups, with the exception of iron and steel, the most important feature is the virtual elimination in 1947 of exports of coal.

Description	Per cent of Total Value			Order of Importance		
	1938	1947	1948	1938	1947	1948
Machinery	12.3	15.9	16.0	1	1	1
Vehicles (including locomotives, ships and aircraft)	9.5	14.8	15.4	3	2	2
Cotton yarns and manufactures ..	10.6	6.8	8.3	2	6	3
Iron and steel and manufactures thereof	8.9	7.4	6.7	4	4	4
Other manufactures	7.3	7.1	6.7	6	5	4
Other textiles	5.2	7.9	6.2	9	3	6
Other metals	4.4	6.6	6.1	11	7	7
Woollen and worsted yarns and manufactures	5.7	5.1	6.0	8	10	8
Miscellaneous articles wholly or mainly manufactured	6.1	6.1	5.7	7	8	9
Chemicals, drugs, dyes and colours	4.7	5.9	5.3	10	9	10
Electrical goods and apparatus ..	2.9	4.3	4.6	12	11	11
Coal	7.9	0.2	2.5	5	12	12

TABLE 5
IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM

Year	By Value (£ million)				By Volume (1938=100)		
	Imports	Retained Imports	Re-exports	Exports	Imports	Retained Imports	U.K. Exports
1938 ..	919.5	858.0	61.5	470.8	100.0	100.0	100.0
1946 ..	1301.0	1250.7	50.3	914.7	66.6	68.3	99.3
1947 ..	1794.5	1734.3	59.8	1138.2	76.0	77.7	108.7
1948 ..	2079.5	2015.0	64.5	1583.3	78.0	80.8	136.3
1948—							
1st Qtr.	487.5	472.1	15.4	353.4	77.6	80.4	125.6
2nd Qtr.	538.3	522.4	15.9	390.1	78.4	80.9	134.3
3rd Qtr.	524.6	508.8	15.8	406.6	78.9	81.9	138.2
4th Qtr.	529.2	511.8	17.4	433.2	78.0	80.0	147.1
1949—							
1st Qtr.	538.2	522.8	15.4	459.9	79.0	81.8	155.5
2nd Qtr.	581.6	566.1	15.5	431.9	85.0	88.3	146.2

(c) The Post-War Situation

(i) Chronology

Measures to close the gap in the balance of payments still dominate the British economy after more than four years of post-war effort. It has been shown that Britain's difficulties in making ends meet can be traced predominantly to the direct effects of war, but that certain of these effects merely intensified weaknesses that were present before the war.

At the end of the war 42 per cent of the country's employed manpower was engaged in the Armed Forces or in supplying their needs, less than 8 per cent in producing and maintaining capital equipment, and only 2 per cent in producing exports. The chief task was, therefore, to reconvert the economy from a war-time to a peace-time basis with the maximum speed and the minimum dislocation.

1946

The main problems of 1946 were: shortages of raw materials, in particular coal and constructional materials—there was not enough coal to satisfy needs at home and exports were negligible; maldistribution of labour both geographically and between industries—measures were taken to attract manpower into undermanned industries; conflict between the needs of the export drive and of the home market, particularly in relation to capital goods. This, together with the post-war scramble for goods in short supply in world markets, resulted in strong inflationary pressure on costs and prices.

In spite of these difficulties, by the end of the year the switch-over in manpower was largely complete; some progress in the reconversion of industry was achieved and a good start was made in the drive to re-establish export markets. Exports in 1945 were less than half the 1938 level; in 1946 they were almost back to the pre-war level. Nevertheless, the high level of exports achieved was not enough to pay for imports, which were 25.30 per cent below the 1938 level.

The end of Lend-Lease in 1945 had been followed by the negotiation of a large American dollar loan, supplemented by a highly valuable Canadian credit. During 1946, essential imports of food and raw materials could in these circumstances be assured in spite of the failure of earnings to equal outgoings in overseas payments.

1947

The dollar shortage, the continued inflation of prices and costs, and the coal shortage provided the main economic problems of 1947. The fuel crisis in February affected production and export progress throughout the year.

The most conspicuous feature of the year was the dollar crisis. In July (according to the terms of the American Loan Agreement) sterling was declared generally convertible for current transactions; convertibility remained in operation, however, for five weeks and was then suspended as a result of the excessive drain on gold and dollar reserves.

A new programme to meet the crisis was drawn up in August. Higher production targets were set; imports were cut; the export programme was revised; and partial control of labour was reimposed. Trade agreements were subsequently signed with a number of countries, and the United Kingdom took the initiative in the movement for European economic co-operation, which was the response to the Marshall offer of June, 1947.

By the end of 1947 crisis had given way to recovery: coal output was expanding; steel production was at a record level; and textile production was showing some improvement. Nevertheless, the total United Kingdom trade deficit was £630 millions, which, although largely financed by dollar loans, involved a considerable reduction in reserves.

1948

The recovery which was evident in the latter months of 1947 continued throughout 1948. The operation of Marshall Aid was of immeasurable importance because it made possible the continuance of a level of essential imports, adequate to the maintenance of necessary production and of full employment. The greatest handicaps were the shortages of certain raw materials, in particular steel, and of industrial components, and the persistent labour shortage in some important industries. . .

The most conspicuous features of 1948 were the high level of employment and the great achievements in the expansion of production and exports. Employment was stabilised at about 19·2 million, but there was an average increase in production per head of about 5 per cent. Steel output reached record heights and textile output continued to rise. In view of the chronic labour shortage in the textile industries measures were taken to increase production through re-equipment and redeployment. There was also an attempt to stabilise wages and prices to prevent rising costs from hampering the export drive.

The import programme aimed at a reduction of dollar purchases through an increase in supplies from other sources and a degree of substitution was in fact achieved.

The extensive post-war programme of Colonial Development, undertaken primarily in the interests of colonial peoples, made significant contributions to this process.

The export drive was highly successful; the target of 150 per cent of the 1938 volume was virtually achieved and the United Kingdom net deficit with all countries fell to £110 million. The size of this deficit was, however, misleading in that it concealed a gold and dollar deficit of £280 million, which a surplus of £170 million with the rest of the world could do little to offset owing to the general inconvertibility of currencies.

At the beginning of 1949 Britain was earning as much from abroad as she was spending ; but she was still heavily dependent on North America as the only source of some essential imports, and the main source of others. The problem had resolved itself into one of the direction of exports.

Emphasis lay, therefore, on an increase in the production of those goods which would sell in dollar markets. Several difficulties had to be overcome. The worst post-war shortages were by now over and buyers were in a position to discriminate, particularly in terms of price. Increased production for export without a corresponding increase for the home market would inevitably cause greater pressure on costs and reduce the ability to compete in world markets. The prices of Commonwealth raw materials, which make a great contribution to Sterling Area dollar earnings, were falling, and, therefore, earning less.

In the second quarter of 1949 there was a marked increase in the dollar deficit. In the summer new dollar purchases were postponed to the maximum possible extent ; dollar economies were concerted with other countries of the Sterling Area ; a plan for substantial assistance to exporters trading in North American markets was announced ; and the exchange rate of the £ sterling was reduced on 18th September, 1949, from 4.03 to 2.80 dollars.

These measures were designed to correct the balance of British overseas trade and to provide an opportunity for increasing exports to hard currency areas. But there still remained the problem of the inflation of costs. The success of the export drive depended largely on the ability to keep prices competitive. Production continued to rise in the manufacturing industries, but the emphasis moved from more production to cheaper production, through the better utilisation of resources of manpower and machinery.

(ii) *Analysis*

The main features of Britain's post-war economy can be summed up thus :—

External

The war destroyed the old pattern of trade and greatly impaired the productive capacity of many of Britain's traditional suppliers. It became necessary for Britain and continental Europe alike to look for a large volume of trade through a direct exchange of goods between North America and Europe. Europe's industrial capacity was severely damaged by war, however, whereas American capacity had expanded. Thus, while Britain is more dependent on America than before the war, America's new industries have obviated her need for many supplies previously imported. In these circumstances, Britain's external trading policy has two facets : in order to be able to cover her necessary purchases in America, dollar earnings are her first priority, while she simultaneously encourages the productive capacity of alternative sources of supply, especially in Europe and the Sterling Area.

Internal

The industrial machine was reconverted to a peace-time basis with a comparatively small amount of dislocation, but in addition the pre-war pattern of production had to cater both for the greater volume of exports and for a change in the type of goods exported.

Thus, Britain's limited resources have had to be distributed between :—

- (a) An enlarged volume of capital construction for replacement, as well as for new and developing industries.
- (b) A larger volume of exports than before the war.
- (c) Home consumption.
- (d) Government projects.

Employment

A very high level of employment has been maintained since the war, which would not have been possible without dollar aid. Before Marshall Aid ends in 1952, it will be necessary to extend sales in North America sufficiently to cover the volume of raw materials which must be bought there.

Emphasis is, therefore, laid on those industries which can contribute to the export drive, or alternatively save imports (this applies in particular to food).

Service personnel and workers in war industries were absorbed into peace-time industries with very little difficulty. Despite controls, however, it has been impossible to achieve the ideal distribution of labour. Some unemployment occurred very soon after the war in the Development Areas while, at the same time, there was a general scarcity of labour elsewhere. The Government's policy of introducing new industries into these areas kept down unemployment, but through lack of mobility there was a waste of manpower at a time when it was most needed. A group of vital industries continued to be undermanned while others, particularly non-manufacturing industries, attracted labour and tended to retain it.

The Defence Services and armaments still absorb a substantial proportion of the employed population and there is virtually no more manpower on which to draw.

Measures have been taken to attract labour into the undermanned industries, to take industry to those areas where there is still some unemployment and to increase output where it is most needed by mechanisation and other methods to improve efficiency.

The speed with which such plans can be put into effect depends, however, on the present ability of industry to manufacture goods that will sell overseas in order to buy raw materials, and to increase output to supply the home market. In many instances these are precisely the industries which are undermanned from the point of view of numbers employed or of skilled labour available. In these circumstances, the necessary increase in output can come only from the full utilisation of existing resources, i.e., through greater output per man and machine.

Production

The effort to increase output generally since the end of the war has been very successful. The absorption of men and materials formerly employed for war purposes was accompanied by some spectacular increases in production. With a comparatively stable labour force the increase continued as shortages were overcome, but the rate of improvement declined.

The reconstruction of industry also involved a change in the pattern of output. It meant increasing the output of coal, steel, agriculture, textiles and other export manufactures, to meet the profound change in the country's post-war position. This process is not yet complete. Measures are still being taken to move resources into industries which can contribute to export manufacture either directly or indirectly through the provision of more plant, machinery, etc. In view of the fairly rigid employment structure it became more and more apparent that output per man in these industries must increase.

In 1948 and 1949 average output per man increased partly because there were fewer hold-ups through shortages, and partly through greater efficiency. The main task for British industry is to continue this progress both to raise and to cheapen production. It is realised that the effort to raise output for export could be completely undermined through high costs and prices.

Mechanisation, re-equipment and new plant will contribute to the future efficiency as well as to the future level of production. The level of investment in new capital in fact largely determines the future level of production. But the resources devoted to this end must be utilised at the expense of current consumption, until production is at the level necessary to satisfy all competing claims.

The needs of capital investment and export sales account for shortages, which, in spite of unprecedented industrial activity, exist in the home market. The pressure of demand on goods in short supply both at home and from overseas also explains why Britain, in common with most other countries, now has a problem of high prices and costs.

Capital Investment

Capital investment in industry is devoted both to the replacement and maintenance of existing stock and to the provision of new assets. In a heavily industrialised country like Britain a large amount must necessarily be put to the former use even after the arrears of war have been made up. In order to maintain a high level of investment in new capital—the means of future production—total capital investment in industry must be very high.

The total volume possible is limited by the need to export a good deal of plant and machinery, by shortages and by the danger of inflation.

Nevertheless, a high level of capital investment has been achieved since the war and it is the Government's intention to increase to the maximum investment in those industries and basic services which will, directly or indirectly, assist towards an improvement in the overseas payments position, in particular through increasing dollar earnings or reducing dollar expenditure.

Balance of Payments

The pattern of post-war production, employment and capital investment is governed largely by the need to balance Britain's payments with dollar countries.

Some progress was made, particularly in 1943, but even in that year there was little change in the proportion of exports going to different areas. Reductions in the dollar deficit at any time since the war were largely the result of either a reduced volume of dollar imports or a change in source of supply away from dollar countries. Only a third of imports came from the Western Hemisphere in 1948 compared with nearly a half in 1947.

The possibilities of a further immediate substitution of sources of supply are very limited, while long-term measures frequently involve heavy capital investment. In these circumstances, Britain has had to resort to further cuts in imports to meet the latest development in the payments problem.

Increasing exports to dollar markets is thus a vital necessity. Further import cuts would endanger the productive machine upon whose success the export drive depends.

As a corollary to the export drive, it became essential to limit personal consumption, both to free resources for the export industries and to reduce pressure on prices; to reduce industrial costs through greater efficiency to make Britain more competitive in world trade; to impose limits even on capital construction, vital as it is to future production; and to adopt measures to attract manpower into essential industries.

At the same time the aim of economic policy was to maintain a high level of employment, without which a high standard of living would be impossible. In a country so dependent as Britain on overseas supplies, that level can be achieved and maintained only by concentrating attention on production for export to those markets which can supply the food and raw materials to keep men and machines at work.

In the new conditions created by the war, Britain's future standard of living depends largely on ability to balance payments with America by increasing exports and not by decreasing imports. It was to this object that the whole nation's economic effort was being directed in 1949.

Quarterly variations in certain important manufacturing industries are illustrated in the table below, which also shows the steady advance made :—

	1946 Average=100					
	1947	1948	1948 3rd Qtr.	1948 4th Qtr.	1949 1st Qtr.	1949 2nd Qtr.
Chemical	105	120	115	124	124	126
China and earthenware ..	117	141	132	148	152	152
Glass	107	122	116	129	141	129
Ferrous metal	102	116	109	121	126	124
Non-ferrous metal	113	115	110	113	118	111
Engineering, shipbuilding, and electrical goods ..	116	136	131	139	139	142
Vehicles	111	121	118	129	142	151
Textiles	107	126	121	132	136	133

(d) The Long-term Programme

The long-term objective is to get overseas trade into balance by the time the assistance of E.R.P. ends in 1952, on the basis of the highest practicable standard of living.

This can be achieved by :—

- (i) Balance at present austerity standards, i.e., paying for imports with current earnings (without E.R.P. aid). This means exporting at least as much as at present but with a greatly increased proportion going to dollar markets.
- (ii) Balance at a level justifying an improved standard of living. This would mean exporting nearly double the volume of exports of 1938, or substituting for manufactured imports a greater proportion of home-produced goods. A very great increase in production and, more important, of productivity would be required to make this possible.

While the second alternative remains the future aim, the first is the immediate objective. The main factors outside Britain's control which will govern the success or failure of this policy are the ability and the willingness of dollar countries to absorb greater supplies from overseas.

The main methods to be employed to achieve the desired balance are :—

- (i) Increased exports, particularly to dollar countries (relying on Britain's main asset—prestige based on high quality and workmanship, and good design), and
- (ii) decreased imports from the Western Hemisphere (see Tables 6 and 7).
- (iii) increased production at home
 - (a) of things at present imported, particularly from hard currency countries.
 - (b) of import substitutes.
 - (c) for export.

- (iv) co-operation with European countries (e.g., by export of coal, steel, machinery and agricultural equipment) to help build up their production of the goods Britain and Europe need from hard currency countries (e.g., timber, feeding-stuffs, pig and dairy produce, special machinery, aluminium). Britain is similarly making major contributions in the Organisation for European Economic Co-operation and in helping to iron out trade and currency difficulties ;
- (v) development of production in the Commonwealth countries, colonies and other overseas sources of foodstuffs and raw materials for the supply of which at present there is dependence on hard currency countries.

The implications of the plan throw into relief the vital importance of four industries :—

- (i) *Coal* to provide fuel and power for all industry ; coal exports to assist European recovery and to balance essential imports.
- (ii) *Steel and Engineering* to provide for increases in Britain's own productive power, and exports to dollar countries, and to support European and colonial recovery and development.
- (iii) *Textiles* to provide hard currency exports, and exports to stimulate colonial development and supply the home market.
- (iv) *Agriculture* to provide more food and animal feeding-stuffs from Britain's own soil and raw materials for industry.

These industries all require increased *manpower*, which must be found by drawing off labour from less vitally important industries. *Productivity* can be increased by re-equipment, re-deployment of manpower, improved management technique, and by giving full play to inventive genius. Increased *capital investment* will require national savings. Restraint will be necessary both in *consumption* to reduce imports to a minimum and increase exports to a maximum and also in *wage demands* and the *distribution of profits* in order to avoid inflation and rising prices.

It is an essential part of the plan for recovery within the period of E.R.P. aid that capital investment should be maintained at a high level in particular in those industries and services which can make some contribution, direct or indirect, towards the solution of Britain's payments problem.

TABLE 6

PRINCIPAL EXPORT AND IMPORT MARKETS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM

(i) *Principal Export Markets of the United Kingdom :—*

Country	1938	1948	1949 1st 6 mths	Order of Importance		
				1938	1948	1949 1st 6 mths
	£ million	£ million	£ million			
India, Pakistan, etc.* ..	33.8	114.7	91.0	3	3	1
Australia	38.2	145.0	81.8	2	1	2
Union of South Africa ..	39.5	120.7	81.4	1	2	3
Canada	22.5	69.6	39.1	4	5	4
Eire	20.3	75.7	38.7	7	4	5
British West Africa ..	9.3	46.0	30.2	15	10	6
New Zealand	19.2	52.6	27.7	9	8	7
Netherlands	13.1	45.3	26.6	12	11	8
United States of America ..	20.5	66.2	25.7	6	6	9
Denmark	15.8	31.0	23.1	10	17	10
Sweden	11.7	55.0	22.5	13	7	11
Argentine Republic ..	19.3	52.5	21.9	8	9	12
Norway	7.6	31.6	21.9	18	16	13
British Malaya	11.1	36.8	19.9	14	13	14

(ii) *Principal Import Markets of the United Kingdom :—*

Country	1938	1948	1949 1st 6 mths	Order of Importance		
				1938	1948	1949 1st 6 mths
	£ million	£ million	£ million			
United States of America ..	118.0	184.4	111.8	1	2	1
Australia	71.8	169.3	111.0	3	3	2
Canada	78.7	216.6	96.7	2	1	3
New Zealand	46.9	108.8	68.9	5	5	4
India, Pakistan, etc.* ..	42.9	107.6	54.6	4	6	5
British West Africa ..	9.3	76.9	49.5	24	7	6
France	23.6	46.3	36.9	11	11	7
Argentine Republic ..	38.5	121.8	36.1	6	4	8
Denmark	37.9	42.2	33.7	7	13	9
Netherlands	29.3	44.4	28.9	8	12	10
Sweden	24.5	55.3	27.1	10	9	11
Eire	23.0	41.4	25.6	12	14	12
Egypt	11.6	47.6	24.6	21	10	13
Belgium	18.6	38.0	21.7	15	15	14

*Formerly British India.

Area	Imports (c.i.f.)				Total Exports (f.o.b.) including Re-exports			
	Percentage of total value				Percentage of total value			
	Year 1938	Year 1948	First Quarter 1949	Second Quarter 1949	Year 1938	Year 1948	First Quarter 1949	Second Quarter 1949
United States of America	12.83	8.87	10.02	9.95	5.40	4.30	3.68	2.29
Canada and Newfoundland	8.84	10.72	8.41	8.98	4.61	4.47	4.25	4.45
Argentine Republic	4.18	5.86	5.04	1.56	3.70	3.21	3.48	1.23
Rest of Western Hemisphere (other than Sterling Area countries, but including Japan and Philippines)	6.82	8.09	6.00	6.41	3.90	4.51	4.63	4.85
Union of South Africa	1.59	1.52	1.69	1.38	7.54	7.35	7.99	9.79
Rest of Sterling Area	29.61	34.50	37.27	37.86	34.13	40.94	42.08	43.64
European countries (including their overseas possessions, other than those in the Western Hemisphere)	31.94	23.70	25.20	26.58	36.16	29.02	27.76	28.01
Other countries	4.19	6.74	6.37	7.28	4.56	6.20	6.13	5.74
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

2. ECONOMIC PLANNING

The paramount aim of Britain's post-war economic policy is to redress the immediate adverse balance of payments as quickly as possible and to maintain thereafter a national investment policy and an internal distribution of British economic resources so designed as to secure a permanent solution. Within the scope of this primary objective—namely, independence of external support—the broad aims of British economic policy are :—

- (1) The highest possible level of production and productivity ;
- (2) Full employment ;
- (3) The control of economic fluctuations ;
- (4) An equitable distribution of the community's output ;
- (5) The co-ordination of an economical distribution of resources with what is physically, socially and strategically desirable.

The main solution of Britain's balance of payments problem is to raise her total output and to divert a larger proportion of that output to export markets, in particular to dollar markets. The main responsibility for raising the level of production rests on the individual initiative of managements and workers. The diversion of output to export markets is, however, directly within the scope of planning and control. To secure this end, expedients of various kinds can be employed ; for example, fiscal policy, both through direct and indirect taxation, can aim at limiting the consumption by the home market of goods required for export ; materials can be allocated to firms in accordance with their export performance, etc., etc.

The growth of economic planning in Britain has been accelerated by two main influences : (1) the rapid and violent changes thrust upon the British economy by the war and the after-effects of war ; (2) the general belief, born before the war and nourished thereafter, that the objectives of economic policy can be consistently achieved only through some measure of central direction of the whole economy. It is important to distinguish between (a) the technique of planning, which is expert estimation of actual and possible economic trends, (b) the machinery of planning, and (c) the measures of fiscal legislation, direct controls, organised consultation, information and exhortation which are used to promote the desired results.

(a) Technique of Planning

The first requirement for the exercise of the technique of planning is adequate information on every aspect of the economy. During and since the war, the British Government's fact-finding organisation has been greatly extended. An important step was taken in 1940 when the *Central Statistical Office* was formed to collate and expand the entire field of Government statistics. Provision for more frequent censuses of production and distribution has been made in the *Statistics of Trade Act, 1947*.

The second requirement is the ability to derive from the facts a comprehensive picture of the whole economy. Such a picture has been officially made available in Britain since 1941, through the series of official publications dealing with national income, capital investment, and the balance of payments.

The third requirement is the estimation of the particular changes and trends required to promote the aims of economic policy. Such an estimate has appeared annually since 1947 as an annual *Economic Survey* in which the Government sets out the general position of the British economy for the current year, the action it proposes to take itself (other than fiscal action) and the action it desires from the general body of citizens. British planning thus attempts to co-ordinate the action of the major forces, realising that the forces themselves depend largely on individual initiative.

(b) Machinery of Planning

The principal elements in the planning machinery are (i) the Cabinet, (ii) the Chancellor of the Exchequer (who combines with that office the functions and responsibilities of the former Minister for Economic Affairs) and the Central Economic Planning Staff, and (iii) the Departments of State with the relevant Inter-Departmental Committees and Working Parties.

(i) *The Cabinet* is the principal executive organ of Government. As such it takes major economic decisions as a whole, though organised in Committees which deal with such principal aspects as economic policy, production, investment programmes, manpower, etc.

(ii) *The appointment of a Minister for Economic Affairs* was announced in September, 1947, to co-ordinate the whole field of economic policy and in particular the programmes of the main economic Departments of State. He had attached to him an Office for Economic Affairs, the chief parts of which were a *Central Economic Planning Staff* and an *Economic Information Unit*. On 13th November, 1947, Sir Stafford Cripps, then Minister for Economic Affairs, was appointed Chancellor of the Exchequer also, and the Office for Economic Affairs was incorporated in the Treasury organisation. Since 23rd December, 1947, the Treasury has had an *Economic Secretary* in addition to the existing post of *Financial Secretary*. Close economic and financial control can, therefore, now be exercised through a single organisation. This Minister's post is the key-point in the economic planning machinery. The Chief Planning Officer and Planning Staff report to him, and he has the task of presenting alternative plans to the Cabinet.

The *Central Economic Planning Staff* came into being in May, 1947. Some of its members are permanent Government officials, others are economists and statisticians recruited from the Universities. Its function is to *initiate* thought and action on general economic matters of vital importance to the nation and to co-ordinate the use of economic resources. Its field of activity is displayed in the annual *Economic Survey*, which is at once a report on the whole economy, viewing each major aspect as complementary to the others, and a programme for action in the current year. The Planning Staff is advisory; it has no executive status. The Cabinet, Cabinet Committees, Ministers and their Departments continue to be responsible for all actual decisions and for their implementation. The Planning Staff has, however, the personnel, the expertise, and the access to facts which give it the capacity for a combinational planning of resources appropriate to given sets of objectives.

An *Economic Planning Board* has also been set up "to advise His Majesty's Government on the best use of our economic resources, both for the realisation of a long-term plan and for remedial measures against our immediate difficulties." The Board, meeting under the chairmanship of the Chief Planning Officer, consists of representatives of both sides of industry together with senior officials of the Treasury, of the Planning Staff and of the main Economic Departments. Hitherto, industrialists and trade union leaders have been consulted by the Government from time to time on particular problems affecting their special interests. The institution of the Planning Board, however, is a radical departure, because it associates management and labour continuously with the Government in the consideration of planning problems as a whole. The Government is thus able to receive and take into account in good time the views of industry, while industry is in a better position to understand the problems confronting Government.

(iii) *Government Departments* constitute the third element in planning, and an important part in formulating the plan is played by inter-Departmental committees. These committees are functional, that is to say, they attempt to translate the projected programmes of the Departments, and of the various sectors of the economy which

they "sponsor," so far as these can be ascertained, into the principal categories of economic planning; e.g., the balance of payments, production, imports, exports, manpower, and above all the capital investment programme. These committees draw their membership from the Departments concerned, from the Central Economic Planning Staff, from the Central Statistical Office, and from the Economic Secretariat of the Cabinet.

The principal Economic Departments of State are the Treasury, the Board of Trade, and the Ministries of Supply, Transport, Fuel and Power, Works, Civil Aviation, Food, and Agriculture. Before the war the Board of Trade was the principal Department concerned with economic affairs. During and since the war, however, the contacts between Government and industry have been greatly expanded, with the result that new Departments have been created and have taken over various functions from the Board of Trade. During the war, also, a system of "sponsoring" was developed to ensure that each sector of the economy had an appropriate Department to which it could refer. Broadly speaking, the Board of Trade is responsible for the consumer goods industries, e.g., clothing, textile goods, and leather, paper, and wooden goods; the Ministry of Supply for the capital goods industries, e.g., iron and steel, chemicals, engineering and aircraft; the Ministry of Transport for roads and railways and, jointly with the Admiralty, for shipbuilding; the Ministry of Fuel and Power for coal, gas, electricity and oil; the Ministry of Works for building and civil engineering. The administration of the housing programme is the responsibility of the Minister of Health, as are the country's water supplies. The Ministry of Food is responsible for the purchase, import, distribution and manufacture of foodstuffs, while the Ministry of Agriculture is responsible for the import of animal feeding-stuffs, agricultural production, forests and fisheries.

A comprehensive "sponsoring" system has thus emerged from the great body of permanent and temporary legislation bringing the Departments of State into contact with every form and aspect of the country's economy. The Departments thus remain as the principal executive organs for translating any plan into actuality. At the same time, it is only from their intimate knowledge of the plans and prospects of each part of industry and trade that the details can be assembled from which a balanced picture can begin to emerge through the machinery already described.

(c) Controls

The realisation of the main objectives which a plan is intended to fulfil is facilitated by certain basic controls. The principal controls are:—

- (i) the control of *imports* through a licensing system administered by the Board of Trade, or through direct Government purchase of imports.
- (ii) The allocation of *raw materials* to industry. The most important of these, such as steel, are allocated at the highest level; others by a special Raw Materials Committee. The administration of the distribution of raw materials is in the hands principally of the Board of Trade, the Ministry of Supply, and the Ministry of Works.
- (iii) Equally important to the productive process with the allocation of raw materials is the distribution of *manpower*. During the war there were extensive controls on the movement of manpower between industry and the armed services, and among industries and occupations themselves. Though conscription was retained, most of these controls were abandoned after the war, but some were resumed in the autumn of 1947. Chief among these are the Registration for Employment Order, and the Control of Engagement Order. These controls are designed to direct manpower towards, or keep it in, essential industries.
- (iv) The allocation of *industrial goods* within industry is in many cases controlled by systems for licensing the acquisition, disposal or consumption of such

goods. These methods are applied, as in the case of raw materials, to industrial goods in very short supply. An important example is the licensing of various classes of machinery and machine tools.

- (v) Controls on production itself are mainly concerned with the relative levels of production of different kinds of goods, through the allocation of raw materials, industrial equipment, and manpower. They are thus mainly negative; for example, the production of certain inessential goods is not permitted at all. In certain cases, however, the State specifies that some goods are to be produced, for example, utility cloths, standard sizes of turbo-alternators, etc. The most important distinction in the sphere of production that the controls seek to influence is the division between the production of capital goods and of consumer goods. This is perhaps the most important aspect of central planning and controls. Britain needs increasing quantities of capital goods, to re-equip her own industries, but capital goods form the backbone of the British export trade. It is necessary, therefore, at present to limit supplies of raw materials for producing consumption goods for the home market and to aim at a careful apportionment of capital goods between re-equipment at home and export markets. Specific powers to make such a distinction exist in some cases; in others, such indirect instruments as steel allocations or building licences are used.
- (vi) The distribution of certain classes of consumer goods to the home market is also controlled by means of various rationing mechanisms, with "points," "coupons," or similar devices. The main classes of goods so controlled are food and fuel. The equitable distribution of these necessities is a cardinal point in current British social policy. At the same time, these rationing systems have the important function of restricting the total internal demand for those goods which are themselves imported or are derived mainly from imported materials. This restrictive function also facilitates control over prices. Similar general or direct control over the distribution of goods to the export market cannot, of course, be effected by such means. Accordingly, a negative system of control is exercised over goods for export by means of the Export Licensing System for essential goods in short supply, while an important positive influence is exercised through bilateral trade agreements, of which about 40 are currently in operation.
- (vii) There are in addition an important series of financial controls. Apart from the action of fiscal controls through the Budget, the Treasury can now in consultation with the nationalised central bank, the Bank of England, give directions to the joint stock banks on certain matters. Such directions have in fact been given in regard to the policy to be followed in regard to bank advances to industry. The *Borrowing (Control and Guarantees) Act, 1947*, limits the raising of additional capital above a certain amount without Treasury consent; such consent is given through a special body known as the *Capital Issues Committee*. The *Exchange Control Act, 1947*, establishes permanent control of the buying and selling of foreign currencies.
- (viii) The remaining major control is that exercised over the location of industry. The *Distribution of Industry Act, 1945*, enables the Government to exercise a considerable influence over the location of new industries. Where alternative economic locations are possible, both controls and inducements are directed towards locating new industries in areas where surplus labour exists.

3. FINANCE

(a) National Income

The national income of the United Kingdom is estimated to have been about £9,675 millions in 1948 compared with £8,725 millions in the previous year. There was also a rise of £75 millions in the amount set aside for the depreciation and maintenance of capital equipment to £825 millions. Borrowing from abroad fell sharply from the high level of 1948 to £120 millions, so that total resources available for use at home in 1948 were £10,620 millions.

There was in fact an increase in the national income in 1948 of some 11 per cent over the 1947 level, part of which can be accounted for by increased prices. The remainder represented a real increase in the production of goods and services, most of which went to meet the demands of the export programme. In addition some went to a further improvement in the social services and some towards sustaining an enlarged capital investment programme. As a result personal consumption hardly increased over the 1947 level.

A broad picture of the national income in 1949 is given in the *Economic Survey* for 1949. From this it has been possible to assess how far the economic programme for the year lies strictly within the limits set by our total resources.

The forecast is necessarily built upon a series of assumptions, viz., that the size and distribution of the working population will progress according to plan, and that average output per man year will increase by about 2½ per cent above the 1948 level; the latter further assumes that there will be no cuts in raw material imports. It has also been assumed that increases in productivity will be accompanied by corresponding increases in money earnings.

On the basis of these assumptions, the national income in 1949 is estimated at about £10,000 millions.

A further increase in the provision of capital for depreciation and maintenance to £900 millions is suggested. No attempt is made to forecast the probable size of the balance of payments deficit with dollar countries for the whole of 1949 since too many unknown factors are involved. It is assumed that the deficit will still be substantial but possibly diminishing.

The distribution of the national income between the different types of expenditure after the apportionment of indirect taxes and subsidies can be expressed as follows :—

NATIONAL RESOURCES AND EXPENDITURE

£ million

Resources	1947	1948	Forecast for 1949 at end 1948 prices	Expenditure	1947	1948	Forecast for 1949 at end 1948 prices
National Income of the United Kingdom	8,725	9,675	10,000	Domestic Expenditure on Goods and Services at Market Prices :	7,465	8,004	8,200
Provision for Depreciation and Maintenance	750	825	900	Personal	2,069	1,914	2,040
Net Loans and Gifts from Abroad and Sales of Foreign Assets ..	630	120	—	Government	2,040	2,352	2,330
				Gross Capital Formation ..			
				Total	11,574	12,270	12,570
				Subsidies	434	515	515
				Less Indirect Taxes	-1,903	-2,165	-2,185
Total Resources available for use at Home	10,105	10,620	10,900	Total Resources available for use at Home	10,105	10,620	10,900

The proportion absorbed by personal consumption represents the amount available if the other two items of expenditure and the value of output are at the estimated levels; it does not represent demand. Whether or not consumers' demand is likely to be reasonably close to the estimated supply depends on whether or not, by taxation and saving together, sufficient purchasing power is likely to be withheld to cover both Government expenditure and capital formation.

On the basis of 1949-50 tax rates, taxation could indeed withdraw purchasing power to a substantially greater extent than the various Government outlays would put purchasing power back into the hands of potential consumers. The extent of the excess of the withdrawal, i.e., the surplus on current account of public authorities, is estimated at about £400 millions, in addition to which it is estimated that some £900 millions will be set aside for maintenance and replacement. Estimated net investment, i.e., investment after allowing for borrowing and sales of assets abroad, is at a high level. This means that there must also be a high level of saving if the home investment programme and the planned reduction of the scale of foreign borrowing are to be carried through without raising prices and incomes above current levels. Should less be saved, that is if people spend more than is estimated on consumption, the demands of the latter will divert the resources needed both to fulfil the capital development programme and to reduce the adverse balance of payments by increasing exports.

(b) Taxation and Personal Income

Total personal income from work and the ownership of property rose by £565 millions to £9,227 millions between 1947 and 1948, that is, by £385 millions less than the increase in the national income. This was because transfer incomes fell because of smaller payments in the form of war gratuities and post-war credits and because little of the rise in corporate profits was passed on to the individual shareholder.

Total tax liabilities, i.e., direct and indirect, rose from 28 per cent of personal income in 1947 to 30 per cent in 1948, compared with 19 per cent in 1938. It is impossible to show the redistributive effects of total taxation on income, since there is no analysis of its incidence on outlay. The effects of direct taxation alone, which exaggerate the redistributive effects of fiscal policy, are shown below.

DIRECT TAXATION OF PERSONAL INCOME IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

Range of Income before tax	Percentage of Total Income within each group paid in tax	
	1938	1947
Under £250	0.2	1.3
£250-£500	2.5	8.2
£500-£1,000	8.8	19.0
£1,000-£2,000	14.8	29.1
£2,000-£10,000	29.2	46.4
£10,000 and over	56.6	76.6

(Source . Cmd. 7649.)

(c) Budgetary Policy

The Budget, presented in April of each year with occasionally a supplementary Budget to meet special circumstances, contains details of estimated national revenue and expenditure for the financial year, together with proposed changes in taxation rates. After debate, effect is given to the proposals by an Act of Parliament. The 1947 Budget was directly framed to resist inflation and to save scarce currencies,

and to these ends a surplus of £248 millions was budgeted for. The interim Budget, of November, 1947, and the 1948 Budget were designed to strengthen still further the defences against inflation.

The 1949 Budget takes full account of the vital importance of increasing production particularly for export to the North American markets. Although production was expanded in all the major sectors of the economy in 1948, there was still room for a greater increase. The Economic Survey brought out strongly the need for higher productivity in every industry and occupation, and the investment plans for 1949 put forward in it emphasised the need for further industrial expansion and modernisation.

The object of the measures is to increase the national income and dispose of it in such a way as markedly to affect its future level. Durable assets, which are the foundation of a real increase in national income, must be derived from current national income, but personal consumption can scarcely be diminished. Hence, in 1948, the series of increases in allowances and reliefs, designed to act as incentives to the lower income groups, were offset by a high level of indirect taxation to discourage an increase in personal consumption.

To preserve monetary equilibrium and to keep inflationary pressures at bay, the Chancellor proposed no measures in his 1949 Budget that would substantially add to current public spending power. The view expressed in the Economic Survey that demand has tended to exceed supply in some sectors of the economy did not imply that total spending power fell short of opportunities for spending, as is reflected in the low figures for voluntary saving. Consequently the Chancellor gave little in the way of income tax or purchase tax concessions in the 1949 Budget. Any such concessions are designed purely as an aid to economic recovery.

The need to meet the current large increases in Government expenditure on defence and the social services, both of which must be paid for out of the national income, was another reason for the Chancellor's maintenance of the present high level of taxation. His decision to call a halt to the rise in subsidies was determined by the desirability of preventing a further rise in the level of taxation.

The most important aspects of the policy behind the measures is the need to meet the overseas deficit through a high level of net capital formation and a reduction in the finance of personal consumption. There are physical limits to the degree of net capital formation possible in view of the needs of the export industries, but the required level is high and depends to a large extent on a high level of savings, i.e., a deliberate withholding of money which would otherwise be spent on personal consumption. Savings, however, not only influence capital formation, but reduce the pressure of demand for resources which can thus be used for export goods, and also reduce inflationary pressure on the prices of scarce goods.

(d) 1949 Budget

Total expenditure in the financial year 1949-50 will, it is estimated, be £3,311 millions, an increase of £136 millions on the previous year. The principal increases occur in general services, which show an increase of £133 millions, of which £69 millions is accounted for by food services. National Services show an increase of £132 millions to £628 millions; the Health Service accounts for £104 millions of this sum. Defence Services also show a big increase over the previous year's estimated expenditure, rising from £693 millions to £760 millions.

Estimated receipts at £3,800 millions are £207 millions less than 1948-49. There is a very large fall in receipts from sources other than taxation, sale of surplus stores is expected to yield less than half of last year's receipts, £44 millions compared with £100 millions; receipts from certain trading services show a fall from £29 millions to £18 millions, and miscellaneous receipts a much greater fall from £181 millions to £50 millions.

Receipts from taxation, on the other hand, show very little change, a decrease of £13 millions to £3,655 millions. Profits tax is expected to fall by £39 millions to £240 millions, and there are other minor changes in a downward direction. The principal sources of increased revenue is income tax, £1,480 millions compared with £1,368 millions. Customs and Excise show a fall of £22 millions to £1,535 millions.

(i) *Income Tax and Surtax*

Income tax and surtax show very little change over the previous year. Income tax is still payable on incomes over £135 per annum, subject to certain allowances. In the case of small incomes between £135 and £160 the charge cannot exceed 3/10ths of the excess of income over £135. The standard rate of income tax is 9s. in the £, but there are reduced rates charged on the first £250 of taxable income.

Incomes exceeding £2,000 are liable to surtax, which is levied at progressive rates varying from 2s. in the £ for the first £500 of chargeable income to 10s. 6d. in the £ on the excess over £20,000.

The principal reliefs include the personal allowance, at present £110, and the marriage allowance, which is £180. An employed wife receives the full personal allowance of £110 in addition to the marriage allowance of £180 received by her husband.

There are also allowances for children and other dependent relatives, the former £60, the latter £50 where the income of the person concerned is less than £70 per annum, and £50 minus the excess over £70 in other cases.

In addition to these reliefs, recipients of earned income receive an allowance, which is a percentage of their total income, subject to a maximum allowance of tax-free income as laid down in the annual Finance Acts.

In the Finance Act, 1948, provision was made to increase the earned income relief from 1/6th to 1/5th subject to a maximum allowance of £400 instead of £250 as before. The amount of taxable income charged at the reduced rate was also increased; the first £50 remained chargeable at 3s. in the £, and the next £200, instead of £75 as previously, are chargeable at 6s.

Where a wife is in employment, reduced rate relief is given in respect of her earned income in addition to the previous allowance given in respect of the joint income of husband and wife, i.e., the couple pay at the reduced rates on the first £500 of their joint income.

INCOME TAX AND SURTAX PAID BY PERSONS WITH DIFFERING INCOMES AND FAMILY RESPONSIBILITIES

Earned Income before Tax	Single Persons		Married Couples with no Children		Married Couples with two Children	
	1947-8	1948-50	1947-8	1948-50	1947-8	1948-50
£	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.
150	2 5	1 10	—	—	—	—
200	9 10	7 10	—	—	—	—
300	36 15	31 10	13 10	10 10	—	—
500	111 15	85 10	80 5	58 10	27 10	22 10
1,000	299 5	265 10	267 15	234 0	213 15	180 0
2,000	711 15	625 10	680 5	594 0	626 5	540 0
5,000	2,574 5	2,488 0	2,542 15	2,456 10	2,488 15	2,402 10
10,000	6,499 5	6,413 0	6,467 15	6,381 10	6,413 15	6,327 10

(Source : Financial Statement 1948-9.)

(iii) Death Duties

In 1946 estates of a net capital value of less than £2,000 were exempted from payment of estate duty and a new scale for values of over £2,000 was introduced. The duty is levied as a percentage of the net capital value of the total estate, ranging from 1 per cent on estates worth £2,000 to 80 per cent on those worth more than £1,000,000. Some examples are given below.

Net capital value of total estate		Rate per cent of duty
Exceeding	Not exceeding	
£	£	£
5,000	7,500	3
10,000	12,500	6
20,000	25,000	15
50,000	60,000	35
100,000	150,000	50
500,000	750,000	70
1,000,000		80

(Source : Financial Statement 1949-50.)

Legacy and Succession Duties were abolished by consolidating them with *Estate duties* by the Finance Act, 1949.

(iv) Stamp Duties

The Finance Act, 1947, doubled various stamp duties, including those on conveyance and transfers by way of sale or voluntary dispositions. In the case of stocks (other than Colonial) and marketable securities the duties were doubled throughout, but the full double duty in the case of other property is not reached until the consideration exceeds £1,950. Between £1,500 and £1,950 there is a graduated scale of increases, and below £1,500 the duty remains the same as before.

The duties on leases, other than certain small transactions, were affected, also on leases of allotment, etc., marketable securities to bearer, share warrants and stock certificates to bearer, mortgage, bond, debenture, covenant, etc., loan capital and bonus issues, etc. In 1949 the duty on bonus issues of securities made after the date of the Budget Statement was abolished. Other obsolete or unimportant duties were also repealed.

(v) Customs and Excise

Total receipts in 1948-9 were provisionally £1,557 millions (i.e. £10 millions more than the estimate), of which Customs yielded £823 millions and Excise £734 millions. The estimates for the current financial year are Customs £856 millions and Excise £679 millions, totalling £1,535 millions.

The Customs duty of 6d. per lb. on Empire tea was repealed and the 8d. duty on non-Empire tea was reduced by 6d. to 2d. per lb. The duty on imported beer was reduced by £1 1s. per barrel of 36 gallons, irrespective of gravity, and on still light wines, other than bottled, by 12s. per gallon. There was a considerable reduction in Customs duties on imported sugar. An increased rate was imposed on matches and mechanical lighters.

The Excise duties on beer and wines were reduced by the same amount as the Customs duties. The Excise duty on sugar was considerably reduced. That on

matches and mechanical lighters was increased in about the same proportion as the Customs duty.

(vi) *Entertainment Duty*

Reduced duties on payments for admission to "living" entertainments, from 30th May, 1948, were among the 1948 Budget measures. Duty on a price of less than 1s. was repealed; the duty was levied at the rate of 1d. per 5d. or part of 5d. on that part of the price above 1s. Exemptions were granted for admission to certain entertainments in rural areas; the scope of these exemptions was extended by the 1949 Finance Act.

(vii) *Purchase Tax*

A great simplification of the complex system of purchase tax rates first introduced in 1940 was proposed in the 1948 Budget. The whole range is now reclassified into four categories, exempt, 33½ per cent, 66⅔ per cent, and 100 per cent, of the wholesale value.

The majority of "utility" articles, essential domestic and industrial appliances and equipment and surgical appliances are exempt. Non-utility clothing, certain domestic and office fittings including lighting appliances, wireless receiving sets and most essential toilet preparations, drugs and medicines and passenger road vehicles are charged at 33½ per cent. Soft furnishing fabrics (non-utility), the majority of domestic and office furniture (non-utility), musical instruments, non-industrial, military or scientific photography equipment, space and water heating appliances of a kind suitable for operation from electric and gas mains, and most passenger road vehicles of a retail value of more than £1,280 come within the 66⅔ per cent range. The "luxury" group, charged at 100 per cent, includes articles made of fur, domestic cases, bags, etc., made of leather, hide or skin, clocks, watches and accessories made wholly or largely of precious metal, other precious metal-ware, jewellery, mirrors and cut glass ware, other precious and semi-precious articles and perfumes.

(viii) *Post Office Charges*

Local telephone call charges in Great Britain and Northern Ireland were increased by 50 per cent.

(e) *Financial Controls*

Three important financial Bills, designed to include all the sanctions necessary to implement the Government's economic policy, became law in 1946 and 1947.

The Bank of England Act, 1946, contains powers which if used could exert a considerable influence on the pattern of short-term lending. *The Borrowing (Control and Guarantees) Act, 1946*, was designed to control operations in the New Capital Market and to encourage real capital development when conditions permit. *The Exchange Control Act, 1947*, is an instrument through which the centralisation of Britain's foreign resources and income is made possible while the problem of scarce currencies remains.

(i) *The Bank of England Act*

Under this Act, existing capital stock was transferred to the Treasury and replaced by government stock, the latter redeemable at par, with not less than three months' notice, on or after 5th April, 1966.

The Governor, deputy-Governor and Directors, reduced from 24 to 16, are now appointed by the Crown.

A most important clause, designed to co-ordinate general banking with the needs of industry, gives new powers over the commercial banking system. The initiative

rests with the bank, which may, in the public interest, request information from and make recommendations to the banks without Treasury sanction ; the latter, however, cannot direct the banks without the agreement of the Bank. No such request or recommendation may be made with respect to the affairs of any particular customer, nor may a banker be compelled to put such a request into effect without an opportunity of making representations.

(ii) *The Borrowing (Control and Guarantees) Act*

The first provision of this Act gives the Treasury permanent powers of controlling Capital Issues on the lines of Regulation 6 of the Defence (Finance) Regulations of 1939, which had already been extended for five years to bridge the gap between war-time and normal peace-time mobilisation of resources. The Act provides for Treasury control of the borrowing (other than from a bank in the normal course of business) of over £10,000 in any twelve months, and of the raising of money ; the issue of securities and the circulation of offers of overseas securities for subscription, sale or exchange is also controlled. (This control remains in the hands of the Capital Issues Committee.)

It is also provided that the Treasury may guarantee loans for the reconstruction or development of industry, provided that the aggregate capital amount (principal and interest only) of the loans in respect of which guarantees are issued in any one financial year shall not exceed £50 millions.

(iii) *The Exchange Control Act*

The control of sterling exchange, and the centralisation of Britain's foreign resources and income, were an essential part of our economic mobilisation for total war. Such control is still an essential part of our economic equipment, although numerous Defence (Finance) Regulations issued during the war lost their *raison d'être* with the end of the war and the growth of new types of financial problems. *The Exchange Control Act* cut out unnecessary regulations and added appropriate ones where necessary, i.e., it amended the controls to suit existing conditions.

The Act restricts dealing in gold and foreign currencies except with authorised dealers who are obliged to buy from and sell to the Exchange Equalisation Account, and requires the surrender by sale to authorised dealers of holdings of specified currencies. The maintenance of exchange rates is based on, and the central supply of exchange fed through, this ultimate canalisation of transactions.

Payments to persons outside the Scheduled Territories without Treasury permission are prohibited ; permission is, however, freely given for payments for authorised current transactions. There is also a prohibition of payments within the Scheduled Territories as consideration for or in association with the acquisition of money or property outside the Scheduled Territories.

War-time control over the issue and transfer of securities where non-residents are concerned still applies, but a new control over foreign and bearer securities was introduced by the Act. Under peace-time conditions new safeguards were needed to prevent the unauthorised transfer of British-owned securities to foreign ownership. Existing controls were adequate in the case of securities on a United Kingdom register, but it was impossible to exercise control over the others, viz., British bearer securities and foreign securities. For this reason such securities are now required to be lodged with an approved bank. Ownership is, of course, not affected, but the document of title must remain with the bank.

The export and import of currency notes and securities are still controlled, and powers are provided to guard against evasion of proper payment for our export of goods. There are also provisions concerning the prompt collection of debts, the control of foreign subsidiaries and related matters.

Exchange control is necessary to prevent capital investment abroad except where it clearly serves the national interest, and to prevent such speculative movements of short-term capital as so disturbed our pre-war international exchange. Since capital movements are not easy to distinguish from current transactions, the whole range of foreign payments must be supervised.

(iv) Price Control

Price control dates from the *Prices of Goods Act*, 1939, which was formulated to prevent the prices of certain goods, as specified by the Board of Trade, rising by a sum greater than the increase in certain costs. In most cases the specified basic prices were those in force on 21st September, 1939. Price-regulated goods are defined in Board of Trade Orders, and price increases are all subject to order.

A Central Price Regulation Committee and seventeen local committees were set up under the Act, the former to advise and assist the Board of Trade in connection with the Act and to co-ordinate the activities of the local committees, the latter concerned primarily with enforcement of the Act and the Orders made thereunder.

Further provisions and amendments to the original Act were laid down in the *Goods and Services (Price Control) Act*, 1941, and the functions of the Central Price Regulation Committee were correspondingly enlarged to deal with the new Act.

Government price control over a wide range of goods is mainly the responsibility of the Board of Trade, which is concerned with all consumer goods other than food, the responsibility of the Ministry of Food, and engineering consumer goods, the control of which is exercised on behalf of the Ministries of Works and Supply. Raw materials are the responsibility of the Board of Trade with the exception of metals, building materials, and coal, oil, etc., which are controlled respectively by the Ministries of Supply, Works, and Fuel and Power.

In certain cases the trader is obliged to fix his prices in accordance with the requirements of the *Prices of Goods Act*, i.e., his net cash profit remains the same as before the war. This applies to certain consumer goods. The majority of other prices are subject either to maximum price orders or to voluntary agreements made between the Central Price Regulation Committee (on behalf of the appropriate Department) and traders. The general effect of these two methods is the same. Maximum price orders remove the trader's obligation to fix his prices as stipulated by the Act, and, instead, fix his price or margin of profit for him, subject, where practicable, to an overriding "ceiling" price which he may not exceed in any circumstances. The wholesaler and retailer may add to the cost price a fixed gross margin to cover both expenses and profit, again subject in certain cases to a ceiling price. The manufacturer may be controlled either by a fixed net margin on cost, or by means of a "standstill" on his lawful price, the latter being the price as controlled by the *Prices of Goods Act*.

Maximum price orders fixing ceiling prices apply to certain consumer goods and raw materials. Certain of the consumer goods, chiefly essentials such as clothing, furniture, etc., many of which are classified as "utility", are subject to orders made under the *Goods and Services (Price Control) Acts*; the majority, however, and all the raw materials in this group, are subject to orders made under Defence Regulations, fixing ceiling prices.

A wide range of non-utility consumption goods are subject to orders made under the *Goods and Services (Price Control) Acts* fixing ceiling prices, or standstills on a war-time year, or prescribing "cost plus", i.e., cost plus a fixed percentage.

Voluntary agreements cover a considerable range of raw materials and certain consumer goods.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer announced in the House of Commons on 12th

February, 1948, that a large category of goods was to be transferred from the provisions of the *Prices of Goods Act, 1939*, to a standstill on prices charged during the two months ended 31st January, 1948, and that the Schedule of Costs in maximum price orders where goods are subject to cost plus was to be amended, so that any labour costs attributable to a wage increase after the date of the White Paper should not be taken into account in fixing prices.

The first standstill orders published by the Board of Trade in accordance with this change in price control policy came into force on 3rd May, 1948. They cover most cotton and woollen textiles, clothing and footwear, certain domestic goods including pottery and hollow-ware, and a very wide range of goods included in the "Miscellaneous" category.

In general, the manufacturer's maximum price is fixed at the lowest price charged for similar goods in the "basic" period, in most cases the two months ended 31st January, 1948. Where seasonal trades are concerned, the basic period is the two months preceding the date of the last sale, provided that sales were made in the ten months preceding 30th November, 1947.

Certain manufacturer's prices are left as before (where previous control was adequate), viz., cost plus a prescribed percentage, but any increase in wages, salaries or commission agreed to after 14th February, 1948, may no longer be included in the assessment of cost.

The price for new types of goods, and goods not sold within any period above, is cost of production and sale plus a prescribed percentage, but, again, increases in wages, etc., may not be included in cost.

The maximum price that wholesalers, retailers and other distributors may charge is, in general, the price paid by them plus a prescribed percentage.

The general purpose of the proposed orders is to provide, so far as is possible within the field of price control, that for a wide range of goods there will no price or profit increase sufficient to strengthen increased wage demands. They are designed both to replace out-of-date controls and to combat inflation.

(v) *Capital Investment*

The size of the total investment programme depends on the ability of the nation to match its investment needs with monetary savings and supplies of material and labour. It is the Government's intention to maintain a large investment programme although the proposals for 1949 as set out above have been modified in the light of recent developments in Britain's balance of payments situation. The investment policy depends too for its success upon a voluntary limiting of consumption in order to maintain the supply of materials necessary for such a programme and to prevent inflationary pressure from exerting an influence on prices.

There are still physical limitations on the size of the investment programme possible; steel and timber in particular are in short supply. Britain is dependent on North American sources for a large proportion of imports of soft timber, and these were affected by the stand-still on dollar purchases announced in June, 1949.

A large proportion of gross investment must go to maintenance and replacement. In a highly developed community like Britain the total stock of fixed capital is so large that maintenance costs are inevitably very great. Consequently the resources which can be devoted to new investment are, in the circumstances, strictly limited.

Nevertheless a large investment programme is vital now to ensure a high level of future production and to provide adequate roads, schools, houses and other necessities. This investment must be financed and this can be done without inflation only if the community sets aside adequate sums from its current income through savings.

ESTIMATED GROSS TOTAL INVESTMENT IN THE UNITED KINGDOM, 1947-1949
(Principal Sectors)
£ million⁽¹⁾

	1947			1948			1949		
	Con- struction	Plant	Total	Con- struction	Plant	Total	Con- struction	Plant	Total
Fuel and Power ..	40	90	130	60	105	165	80	140	220
Transport, Communications and Shipping ..	105	220	325	115	240	355	140	220	360
Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries ..	25	45	70	25	60	85	35	60	95
Other Industries	95	275	370	100	305	405	125	325	450
Housing, including repairs and maintenance	460	—	460	475	—	475	420	—	420
Other Social Services ..	40	—	40	65	—	65	100	5	105
Defence and Administration ..	45	5	50	55	5	60	60	10	70
Northern Ireland ⁽²⁾	15	5	20	20	5	25	25	10	35
Total ⁽³⁾ ..	825	640	1,465	915	720	1,635	985	770	1,755

(1) At current prices in 1947 and 1948, and for 1949 at 1948 prices.

(2) Excluding investment in agriculture and some smaller items included elsewhere.

(3) Excluding miscellaneous fixed investments.

(vi) *The Local Government Act*

This Act of March, 1948 (*see p. 13*), is designed to amend the law relating to Exchequer and local authority grants to local authorities and to other bodies, and the law relating to rating and valuation for rating purposes; to provide payments for the benefit of local authorities by the British Transport Commission, the British Electricity Authority, and the North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board.

It centralises valuation machinery, thus making it possible to estimate the true resources and needs of the different local authorities, but it is agreed that the rating authority should be given a third party's right of appeal against the Inland Revenue's valuation.

Government assistance is concentrated where it is most needed, i.e., on the poorer authorities, by substituting an Exchequer Equalisation grant for the discarded Block grant. The Exchequer makes grants to all those local authorities which possess less than the national average of rateable value. The Government reserves the right to check the whole of the authority's expenditure, but it cannot

withhold the grant without presenting a report and seeking the approval of Parliament. The total grant for 1948-49 was about £50 millions, and that for 1949-50 will be about the same amount.

Nationalised transport and electricity undertakings will, in lieu of rates, make payments to be distributed by the Minister to the rating authorities.

(f) Finance Corporations

There are two finance corporations designed to supplement existing capital market institutions. Before the war certain types of industrial and commercial borrower experienced difficulty in meeting their needs through the existing market machinery, and the corporations provide a new source of finance for British industry. The joint finance will come almost entirely from joint bank funds. The capital and loan power of the corporations is limited to a total of £170 millions out of which the banks are authorised to provide all the loans (£130 millions) and £14½ millions in share capital.

(i) *The Industrial and Commercial Finance Corporation*

I.C.F.C. caters especially for the small borrower. Its function is to make loans which normally would be too long for bank credit, or too short and too small for the new issue market. In the past such loans have been raised from a variety of sources, through merchant banks, hire-purchase institutions, etc., or through private negotiations. The Corporation not only extends these facilities but canalises them, providing centralised machinery, not previously in existence, to cater for highly varied needs and circumstances.

The Corporation is a developing institution, the significance of which cannot clearly be seen before it has had time to develop its own particular sphere of business within the framework of financial machinery. It is not a banking institution, and although its shareholders are the member banks, the conduct of its business is entirely in its own hands.

There are two main types of business performed by the Corporation. It provides advances repayable by instalments over periods up to twenty years at four to four and a half per cent. It also provides "risk" capital by taking up preference or ordinary shares, or notes carrying an option to convert into shares. The policy in such cases of permanent financing is to participate both in the risk and the profit, to insist that part of the latter be ploughed back into the business, and to maintain regular contact with the borrower to whose hands alone, however, the business of management remains.

(ii) *The Finance Corporation for Industry*

This Corporation is designed to operate on a much larger scale than I.C.F.C. It is intended to cater for the long-term capital needs of firms or industries which should, in the national interest, be in a position to borrow, but for some reason, financial or otherwise, are not in a position to raise capital through the ordinary channels. Its purpose is to provide finance for industry with a view to assisting in speedy rehabilitation or development in the national interest, thereby also assisting in the maintenance and increase, if necessary, of employment.

It is not concerned with the management of industry; its scope is purely financial, and concerned both with post-war reconstruction needs and with long-term industrial development.

F.C.I. is a private limited company owned jointly by a large group of insurance companies, trust companies, and the Bank of England in the proportion of 40: 30: 30 per cent respectively. The bulk of the Corporation's resources is provided by the Clearing and Scottish banks. The Corporation is formally independent of the authorities.

The banks provide favourable terms for F.C.I.'s borrowings, and since it is the latter's policy to pay only moderate dividends on its capital, it is in a position to offer special terms to borrowers.

F.C.I. is expected to cater largely for basic industries, although in its first period it operated in a wide field including diesel engineering, shipping, chemicals, gas turbines, electrical components, etc. It is, like I.C.F.C., a developing institution.

4. RATIONING

(a) Food

Food rationing in the United Kingdom was introduced by the Government in January, 1940, for butter, bacon and sugar. Rationing was extended until nearly all important foods were controlled by rationing or other distribution schemes. Bread was rationed from July, 1946, to July, 1948, and preserves from March, 1941, to December, 1948. Under the ordinary rationing scheme the consumer is restricted to a fixed quantity of each food for a fixed period.

Weekly Rations and Allowances for Domestic Consumers (a) at 30th September, 1949.

Commodity	Normal Adult	Child under 5 years old	Expectant Mother
Meat	1s. 4d. (b)	8d.	2s. 0d.
Bacon	3 oz.	3 oz.	3 oz.
Butter	4 oz.	4 oz.	4 oz.
Margarine	4 oz.	4 oz.	4 oz.
Cooking fat	2 oz.	2 oz.	2 oz.
Cheese (c)	2 oz.	2 oz.	2 oz.
Sugar (d)	8 oz.	8 oz.	8 oz.
Milk, fresh	2-3½ pints according to season	Child 0-1 : 12 pints ; Child 1-5 : 7 pints ; Adolescent (5-18) : 3½ pints ; Handicapped child (5-16) : 7 pints	7 pints extra
Tea	2 oz. (e)	—	2 oz.
Points (per 4-week period)	24	24	24
Chocolate and sweets (per 4-week period)	16 oz.	16 oz.	16 oz.

(a) Certain classes of invalids receive in addition special allowances of foodstuffs in accordance with scales based on the recommendations of the Food Rationing (Special Diets) Advisory Committee of the Medical Research Council.

(b) Coal miners working underground are entitled to additional ration of 1s. 4d.

(c) Special cheese ration of 12 oz. is given to certain categories of workers without catering facilities. Vegetarians are allowed 12 oz. cheese. Varieties of special cheeses are sold either on points or without restriction.

(d) Special additional issues of sugar are made from time to time for domestic jam-making. These totalled 7 lb. in the period April-October, 1949.

(e) 3 oz. for persons over 70.

Points Rationing Scheme

A more flexible system of rationing to cover a wide range of other foods is provided by the "points" scheme. Each consumer is allowed in a period of four weeks, a given number of "points" which can be spent at any shop at which the foods included in the scheme are available. Points values are varied periodically to balance supply and demand.

The following foods are included (September, 1949) in the scheme: canned meats, certain types of canned fish, rice, dried fruits, imported canned fruit, canned beans and tomatoes, condensed milk, certain types of special cheeses, syrup and treacle, mincemeat, table jellies, shredded suet, sweet biscuits.

Examples of points values (at 30th September, 1949) are:—

Biscuits (chocolate)	16 points per lb.
.. (sweet or semi-sweet) ..	10 points per lb.
Canned Sardines	1 point per small tin.
Canned Salmon	12 to 28 points per 1 lb. tin according to grade.
Currants and Sultanias ..	12 points per lb.

Special distribution schemes

The following foods are not strictly "rationed" but are controlled through distribution schemes: milk, eggs, oranges and bananas.

Eggs: Ordinary consumers normally receive one egg at each allocation. 58 allocations were made in 1947, and 76 in 1948. Children between 6 months and 2 years and certain classes of invalids receive priority supplies at the rate of 3 eggs a week. Expectant mothers receive an extra shell egg at each allocation and expectant mothers and children under 5 a point-free packet of dried egg every eight weeks.

Oranges: Allocations are made as supplies are available. Restriction is suspended when supplies are plentiful. Children under 5 have priority when supplies are limited.

Bananas: Allocations are made, when supplies are available, to children and adolescents under 18, to expectant mothers and to persons over 70.

Welfare Foods Service

The Welfare Foods Service, which from 21st July, 1946, became associated with the Family Allowances Scheme, provides certain specified goods at subsidised rates for expectant mothers, children and adolescents. The foods are—milk, at 1½d. a pint to expectant mothers, children under 5, and handicapped children between 5 and 16 who are unable to attend school; national dried milk, at 10½d. a tin to children under one year as an alternative to liquid milk; orange juice, at 5d. a bottle to expectant mothers and children under 5; cod liver oil free of charge to expectant mothers and children under 5; vitamin A and D tablets, free of charge to expectant mothers as an alternative to cod liver oil and also to mothers for 30 weeks after confinement.

National milk cocoa is supplied to young persons under 21 who are employed workers, students, or members of youth organisations, for sale at a maximum price of 1½d. for a third of a pint, and orange juice jelly for patients in hospitals.

Milk and orange juice are supplied free to those unable to pay for them.

Schoolchildren receive one-third of a pint of milk free daily in school and the provision of meals in schools is being extended as rapidly as circumstances permit (see under *EDUCATION*).

Catering Establishments

Coupons are not required to be surrendered for meals taken in catering establishments, but persons staying in a catering establishment for four nights or more must

produce their ration books to the management in order that the appropriate coupons may be cancelled.

Supplies of rationed or controlled foods to catering establishments are restricted to amounts roughly equivalent to those obtained by the domestic consumer. The allowance is, in general, related to the number of meals or hot beverages served.

Special higher scales of allowances apply to industrial works canteens, commercial catering establishments catering wholly or mainly for industrial workers, schools, nurseries, youth centres, etc. Industrial canteens are divided into two classes, those serving workers in specified heavy industries (Category A) receiving larger allowances than others.

A pie scheme, for the distribution of meat pies and packed meals, operates in rural areas for the benefit of agricultural workers without canteen facilities.

(b) Soap

From November, 1949, each consumer will be entitled to 8 instead of 7 "rations" of soap per 8-week period. A "ration" may be any one of the following quantities: 4 oz. of hard soap; 3 oz. of toilet soap; 6 oz. of soft soap; 6 oz. of No. 1 soap powder; 12 oz. of No. 2 soap powder; 3 oz. of soap flakes; $\frac{1}{2}$ pint of No. 1 liquid soap; 1 pint of No. 2 liquid soap.

Children under 2 are entitled to 8 "rations" per 4-week period, and children between 2 and 5, 9 "rations" per 8-week period. Special allowances are granted to chimney sweeps and limbless persons.

(c) Domestic Fuel

Fuel supplies are controlled under the *Fuel and Lighting (Coal) Order, 1941*, which came into force in January, 1942.

Domestic coal and coalite are rationed. Allowances for the year 1st May, 1949-30th April, 1950, are as follows:—

(a) *House and Kitchen Coal and Coalite*

Southern Regions—the maximum for the 12 months is 34 cwt., of which not more than 20 cwt. may be supplied between 1st May and 31st October, and not more than 24 cwt. in the winter period, November–April.

Northern Regions—the maximum for the 12 months is 50 cwt., of which not more than 20 cwt. may be supplied between 1st May and 31st October, and not more than 30 cwt. during the winter period.

(b) *Coke, Anthracite, Welsh and Kent Dry Steam Coal and all manufactured fuels other than Coalite*

The maximum for the 12 months is 40 cwt., of which not more than 20 cwt. may be supplied each six-month period May–October or November–April.

(c) Consumers who rely entirely on coal for cooking or who have other special needs may apply to the local Fuel Overseer for additional supplies.

(d) Petrol and Travel

(i) *Petrol:*

The basic petrol ration, which was provided for private cars and motor cycles from September, 1939, when motor fuel rationing began, until June, 1942, was revived in June, 1945. Owing to Britain's shortage of dollar funds it was found necessary as a measure of economy to suspend the basic ration again as from 1st October, 1947.

The position was reviewed in the spring of 1948 in the light of a report by an independent Committee which was set up to advise on measures to strengthen the provisions against evasions of the petrol rationing regulations. The Committee recommended *inter alia* that to preclude substantial misuse of petrol it should be arranged that petrol for commercial vehicles should be dyed red and should contain

a chemical detector and that severe penalties should be imposed on dealers who supplied commercial red petrol for use in private motor vehicles and on private motorists in whose car or motor cycle such petrol was found.

These measures and a further cut in allowances for goods vehicles have enabled a standard ration to be provided for unrestricted use in respect of private cars and motor cycles without increasing the existing rate of consumption of motor fuel in the United Kingdom.

From 1st June, 1948, a standard ration of petrol sufficient for about 90 miles motoring a month (i.e., about one-third of the basic ration at the August, 1946-October, 1947, level) was made available in respect of all currently licensed private cars and motor cycles. This was doubled for the June-October period, 1949. From 1st May no reduction from supplementary allowances for business, professional and necessary domestic purposes has been made on account of the standard ration.

Petrol for Overseas Visitors: From 19th April, 1948, visitors from outside the British Isles who bring a private car or motor cycle with them or who buy a new one in the United Kingdom for subsequent export are allowed petrol sufficient for the direct journey from port of entry or place of purchase to their furthest destination in the United Kingdom and thence to their port of departure, plus a touring allowance sufficient for 600 miles for a stay of up to 14 days, or for 800 miles for a stay of between 15 and 21 days, or for 1,000 miles for a stay of over 21 days and up to one calendar month.

For visitors staying more than one month allowances for the equivalent of an additional 300 miles motoring per month will be made for a second or third month. No special allowances will be issued for longer visits, but coupons will be valid for six months from the date of arrival or purchase of car. The maximum touring allowance for a stay of three months or more will therefore provide 1,600 miles motoring.

(ii) *Overseas Travel:*

A travel ban was imposed from 1st October, 1947, till 30th April, 1948, by the suspension of provision of foreign currency for the purpose of pleasure travel abroad.

Pleasure travel with allowances of £50 in a year for adults and £35 for children under 15 is now permitted to the following countries: Austria, Denmark, France, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and Switzerland. For visits to Belgium and Luxembourg the limits of individual expenditure are £35 for adults and £25 for children and total expenditure by United Kingdom tourists is limited to £1.1 million in the year May, 1949, to May, 1950. Total expenditure on tourist travel in Switzerland is limited to about £4.5 millions.

5. INDUSTRY

(a) Overall Pattern

The first fact which distinguishes the British economy from those of other countries is the marked predominance of industry over agriculture. Excluding such basic industries and services as mining, transport, distributive trades and commerce, which in their different ways serve all other forms of economic activity, and taking manufacturing industry alone, it will be found that the latter employs seven times as many people as agriculture.

In the absence of an up-to-date Census of Production the best indication of the pattern of industry can be obtained from the distribution of the employed population, deducting from the total, 22,170,000 in July, 1949, those engaged in National and Local Government Service, 1,467,000, Public Utility Services 307,000, Transport and Shipping 1,809,000, Commerce and Finance and professional and personal service 3,926,000, the distributive trades 2,771,000, Building and Civil Engineering 1,497,000, and Mining and Quarrying 864,000.

This leaves those engaged in agriculture, horticulture and fishing 1,280,000 and in the manufacturing industries 8,249,000 (of whom 1,973,000 were working on export orders).

The figure for manufacturing industries need not be analysed completely. The *Ministry of Labour Gazette* (September, 1949) gave the figures set out below relating to employees in various industry groups. The difference of 266,000 in the two totals represents employers; the first total refers to total employment and the second to employees only.

Industry Group	No. of Employees (000's)
Metal Manufacture.. .. .	493.1
Shipbuilding and Ship-repairing	215.8
Engineering and Electrical Goods	1,584.3
Motors, Aircraft and other Vehicles	894.5
Metal Goods (including Scientific Instruments)	608.7
Chemicals, Explosives, Oils, Paints, etc. ..	435.1
Textiles	974.9
Leather and Leather Goods	77.8
Clothing	507.5
Boots and Shoes	154.4
Food, Drink and Tobacco	732.8
Woodworking and Furniture	280.5
Paper and Printing	481.1
Bricks, Pottery, Glass, Cast Stone and Cement	310.8
Other Manufacturing Industries	232.1
TOTAL	7,983.4

(Source : *Ministry of Labour Gazette*, September, 1949.)

(b) Basic Industries

The review of Britain's post-war economic problems above stressed the important contribution Britain's manufacturing industry must make to the solution of overseas payments difficulties. A rough calculation attributes one-fifth of British manufacturing costs to imported materials, four-fifths to internal costs; apart from labour, chiefly transport and fuel and power. Primary importance in the post-war period has therefore been attached to reorganising and improving the efficiency of certain "basic" industries. These industries are "basic" in the sense that they provide a general basis for all industrial output; and an important part of manufacturing costs. In addition to transport (which is dealt with in Section IV) the "basic" industries may be taken as coal, gas and electricity. Although steel is itself a manufacturing industry in the usual sense of the word, its contribution to industry is so general that it can also be taken as a "basic" industry.

Reorganisation of the Basic Industries

The Government in power has elected to apply the policy of nationalisation (see p. 38) to these industries, i.e., transport, coal, gas, electricity and steel. Of these, Acts of Parliament are already on the Statute Book in regard to transport, coal, gas and electricity. A Bill relating to the nationalisation of steel, introduced into the House of Commons in October, 1948, received Royal Assent 24th November, 1949.

CONSUMPTION OF GAS IN GREAT BRITAIN, 1946

	Gas Sold mn. cu. feet	Percentage	'000's of Meters
Domestic	293,670	65.8	10,922
Industrial	92,145	20.7	105
Commercial	53,445	11.9	580
Miscellaneous	6,826	1.6	6
TOTAL	446,086	100.0	11,613

(Source : Ministry of Fuel and Power : Statistical Digest 1946-7.)

The following figures of production relate to both statutory and non-statutory undertakings.

GAS PRODUCTION—WEEKLY AVERAGES

Million Therms

	Made at Gasworks	Bought from Coke-ovens	Total available at Gasworks
1938	29.2	2.7	31.9
1945	34.2	4.7	38.9
1946	38.3	4.8	43.1
1947	39.5	4.9	44.4
1948	40.8	5.4	46.2

(Source : Monthly Digest of Statistics.)

(iii) The Electricity Supply Industry

The *Electricity Act, 1947*, became law on 13th August, 1947. On 1st April, 1948, under the Act, the great majority of existing electricity undertakings in Great Britain were dissolved and their assets were vested in one existing public body, and fifteen new public bodies created by the Act. The broad effect of the Act is to vest generation and mains transmission assets (including the existing "Grid") in a central body known as the British Electricity Authority, and the distribution assets in fourteen Area Boards who receive their supply from the Central Authority. In a defined area covering the North of Scotland, however, both generation and distribution assets are vested in one existing public body, the North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board set up under the *Hydro-Electric Development (Scotland) Act, 1943*. The Act does not apply to Northern Ireland. As in the case of gas, the new arrangements for electricity supply replace a complicated structure of ownership which has developed since the first *Electric Lighting Act* was passed in 1882. The mosaic pattern of electricity supply in Britain has been built up by the Parliamentary grant of exclusive rights to supply consumers in a given area.

Generation in Great Britain has hitherto been carried out by authorised undertakers, by certain power company stations other than authorised undertakers, by certain railway and transport authorities for their own use, by the principal factory and colliery trades for their own use, by the North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board, and by the Central Electricity Board at one station. Since 1926 generation has been progressively concentrated in "selected stations" under the directional control of, but not owned by, the Central Electricity Board.

TABLE 1

SOURCE OF GENERATION BY AUTHORISED UNDERTAKERS IN 1946

Source	Mn. Units	Percentage
Steam Plant—		
From coal, coke and oil firing ..	42,733	97.16
From waste heat and refuse ..	48	0.11
Water Power Plant ..	1,128	2.56
Oil Engine Plant ..	74	0.17
Gas Engine Plant ..	1	—
TOTAL ..	43,984	100.00

(Source : Ministry of Fuel and Power : Statistical Digest 1946-7.)

Out of a total of 42,580 million units generated in 1947 at the 334 stations owned or leased by authorised undertakers alone, 40,855 million units or 96 per cent were generated at 140 selected stations. The 194 non-selected stations accounted for only 4 per cent of this total.*

Since 1938 production of electricity in Great Britain has been rapidly expanded, but demand has increased even more rapidly. The figures of production in Table 2 relate to Authorised Undertakers.

TABLE 2

GENERATION OF ELECTRICITY IN GREAT BRITAIN

						Units generated (mns.)	
						1938	1947
Authorised undertakers (including power company stations):							
Public Authorities	13,143	24,475
Companies	11,229	18,105
Railway Authorities	1,331	1,404

(Source : Ministry of Fuel and Power : Statistical Digest 1946-7.)

Although output has been greatly expanded, during the war it was necessary to postpone much needed expansion and replacement of generating plant. This has provided severe problems of capacity in relation to total demand and particularly in relation to peak demand. Extensive schemes for staggering the load were put into operation in the winters of 1947-8 and 1948-9, and these will again be necessary in the winter of 1949-50. The following table shows the maximum capacity which it is hoped will be available and the estimated peak demand.

CAPACITY AVAILABLE AT PEAK

Megawatts

	Assuming 15% out of service	Assuming 10% out of service	Peak Demand in Severe Winter	Gap
1949-50	10,400	11,000	12,500	1,500—2,100
1950-51	11,400	12,000	13,300	1,300—1,900
1951-52	12,800	13,500	14,100	600—1,300
1952-53	14,200	15,000	14,900	0—700

(Source : Economic Survey for 1949.)

* In addition there were 13 generating stations belonging to and operated by railway and transport authorities. The figures below do not include generation by factories, farms, collieries, etc., for their own use.

(i) *Coal*

The coal-mining industry was brought into public ownership by the Coal Industry Nationalisation Act, which became law on 12th July, 1946. The ownership of the mineral rights had already passed to the State under the Coal Mines Act of 1938. The assets of the concerns taken over were vested in the N.C.B. on 1st January, 1947, and with the exception of a few small mines are now operated by the National Coal Board set up by the former Act. The property taken over by the N.C.B. included some 1,500 collieries (formerly owned by some 800 concerns). Over 400 small mines, nearly half the country's coking and by-product plants, about 1,000,000 acres of land, 100,000 dwelling-houses, 200,000 railway wagons, wharves, and much other property. The N.C.B. employs about three-quarters of a million people. The Coal Nationalisation Act does not apply to Northern Ireland, where little coal is worked. The N.C.B. is responsible to the Minister of Fuel and Power, who exercises a general supervision over the programmes and operations of the Board.

Coal is Britain's key industry, supplying over nine-tenths of the primary sources of power. The N.C.B. is undertaking a complete reorganisation of the industry as a long-term project extending over many years. An account of the first steps can be found in the first three Annual Reports of the Board covering the period up to 31st December, 1948.

The immediate post-war task for the coal industry is to raise the level of coal output. Substantial increases both in total production and in productivity per man are required. The following key figures illustrate the pre-war and post-war position.

TABLE 1

Output	Actual 1947	Target 1948	Actual 1948	Target 1949	Actual 1st half 1949
	mn. tons	mn. tons	mn. tons	mn. tons	mn. tons
Deep-mined (52 weeks)	187.2	200	196.7	202.207	102.4
Opencast (52 weeks)	10.2	11	11.7	13	6.2
	'000s	'000s	'000s	'000s	'000s
Manpower on colliery books at end of period ..	718	750	726	736	722

TABLE 2

	Pro- duction	Inland consump- tion	Exports and bunkers	End period stocks	Nos. on Colliery books	Av'ge Output (tons per manshift)	
	Weekly Average: '000 tons				Wkly. Av. '000's	Overall	At coal- face
1937	4,610	3,623	998	N.A.	778	1.17	3.00
1945	3,506	3,446	164	12,314	709	1.00	2.70
1946	3,647	3,569	176	8,279	697	1.03	2.76
1947	3,787	3,547	104	16,356	711	1.07	2.86
1948	4,001	3,698	305	14,567	724	1.11	2.92
1949 (1st half)	4,179	3,899	323	12,816	726	1.15	3.00

(Source: (1) Monthly Digest of Statistics; (2) Economic Survey for 1948.)

(ii) The Gas Supply Industry

The Gas Supply Industry was brought into public ownership by the Gas Act, 1948, which became law on 30th July, 1948. The assets of the concerns taken over vest in twelve Area Boards, set up under the Act, on 1st May, 1949. A central body known as the Gas Council co-ordinates the activities of the Area Boards. Both the Gas Council and the Area Boards are responsible to the Minister of Fuel and Power, the powers of the Minister in relation to these bodies being laid down in the Act. The property taken over by the Area Gas Boards includes that previously owned by over 1,000 gas undertakings in Great Britain. The Act does not apply to Northern Ireland.

The Gas Act replaces a complicated legal structure of ownership. The Gas Supply Industry in Britain has consisted of undertakings owned by (a) Local Authorities, (b) Statutory Companies, (c) Non-statutory Companies. Different types of ownership have predominated in different areas, e.g., in the south of England gas has been supplied almost entirely by companies; in Scotland mainly by local authorities. The Gas Industry has been subject to extensive legislative control, including price and dividend control. In addition to numerous General Acts and many hundreds of Departmental Orders, there were in force, up to 1937, no fewer than 3,278 Private Acts and Special Orders relating to gas supply.

Gas supply in Great Britain is based on the carbonisation of coal, and to a small extent on gas oil, supplies of natural gases in Great Britain being negligible. This is illustrated by the following facts relating to 1947.

1. Basic Materials Consumed

Coal : 22,554,000 tons.

Gas Oil : 171,765,000 gallons.

2. Basic Materials Produced

Gas : 432,413 million cubic feet.

Coke : 12.44 million tons.

Tar : 2,274,000 tons.

Benzole : 19.5 million gallons.

Sulphate of Ammonia : 87,000 tons.

(Source : Ministry of Fuel and Power : Statistical Digest 1946-7.)

In 1947 there were 1,038 undertakings, namely :—

	No.	Production mn. cu feet	Percentage of total make
Local Authorities	275	158,945	36.8
Statutory Companies	402	261,584	60.5
Non-Statutory Companies	361	11,884	2.7
TOTAL	1,038	432,413	100.0
Coke Oven Gas Purchased	53,984	
Total Gas Available	486,397	

(Source : Ministry of Fuel and Power : Statistical Digest 1946-7.)

The principal use of gas in Britain is for domestic heating and cooking. Eight families out of ten cook by gas, and nearly every household in the country has a gas supply. Approximately two-thirds of the total gas sold is supplied for domestic purposes, and the remaining one-third for industrial, commercial and other purposes. But industrial gas is of growing importance. Since 1938 the domestic consumption of gas has grown by 44 per cent, industrial consumption by 70 per cent. Gas is used in some 4,000 industries and trades in Great Britain.

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Railway Authorities	1,331	1,404

(Source : Ministry of Fuel and Power : Statistical Digest 1946-7.)

Although output has been greatly expanded, during the war it was necessary to postpone much needed expansion and replacement of generating plant. This has provided severe problems of capacity in relation to total demand and particularly in relation to peak demand. Extensive schemes for staggering the load were put into operation in the winters of 1947-8 and 1948-9, and these will again be necessary in the winter of 1949-50. The following table shows the maximum capacity which it is hoped will be available and the estimated peak demand.

CAPACITY AVAILABLE AT PEAK

Megawatts

	Assuming 15% out of service	Assuming 10% out of service	Peak Demand in Severe Winter	Gap
1949-50	10,400	11,000	12,500	1,500—2,100
1950-51	11,400	12,000	13,300	1,300—1,900
1951-52	12,800	13,500	14,100	600—1,300
1952-53	14,200	15,000	14,900	0—700

(Source . Economic Survey for 1949.)

* In addition there were 13 generating stations belonging to and operated by railway and transport authorities. The figures below do not include generation by factories, farms, collieries, etc. for their own use.

SALES BY AUTHORISED UNDERTAKINGS

(mn. units)

	1938	%	1945	%	1947	%
Domestic and farm premises	5,360	26.3	8,811	28.1	12,724	35.6
Commercial premises ..	3,114	15.3	3,467	11.1	3,842	10.7
Industrial premises	10,311	50.5	17,687	56.4	17,674	49.4
Public Lighting	367	1.8	162	0.5	179	0.5
Traction	1,249	6.1	1,236	3.9	1,362	3.8
TOTAL	20,401	100.0	31,363	100.0	35,781	100.0

(Source : Ministry of Fuel and Power : Statistical Digest 1946-7.)

(iv) *The Steel Industry*

The steel industry is the only manufacturing industry for which a measure for nationalisation has already been introduced into the House of Commons. The industry is already operating under close Government control. There is extensive price control. The allocation of steel is so vital to the planning of British industrial recovery that the principal decisions are made at Cabinet level. A steel distribution scheme for consumers is administered by the Minister of Supply. Imported iron and manganese ore are purchased by the British Iron and Steel Corporation (Ore) Ltd., and distributed by them to consuming works. Similarly imported pig iron is purchased on Government account and is distributed by the British Iron and Steel Corporation; imported scrap is also purchased on Government account and disposed of by another agency called Iron and Steel Disposals Ltd.

The sponsoring Department for the steel industry is the Ministry of Supply. From September, 1946, to September, 1948, an interim organisation was charged with a general supervision of the development of the iron and steel industry. This organisation is called the Iron and Steel Board, whose functions were announced by the Government on 19th August, 1946. The Board, with the exception of an independent Chairman, was a part-time body, consisting of three representatives of industry, two Trade Union representatives, and an official of the Treasury.

The Government has adopted, and the Iron and Steel Board temporarily supervised the implementation of, an extensive development plan for the industry. The general shape of this plan is based on a report drawn up after the war by the British Iron and Steel Federation and the Joint Iron Council, and communicated to the Minister of Supply. This report on the post-war position and prospects of the U.K. iron and steel industry can be found in an official White Paper, Cmd. 6811, published in May, 1946.

The demand for steel from the U.K. is running at record levels, due to the exceptionally high demand for capital equipment both from domestic and overseas sources. The report referred to estimated home and export demand by the years 1950-5 at 13 million and 3 million ingot tons respectively. Demand was running at about this level in 1948. Although considerable progress has been made in the planned extension of capacity, the most intensive working of plant has been necessary to sustain the record outputs of primary steel and iron products which the industry has been able to achieve.

TARGETS FOR IRON AND STEEL : 1948
million tons

	Actual 1947 (53 weeks)	Target 1948	Actual 1948	Target 1949	Actual 1st half 1949
Steel Ingots and Castings (production)	12.7	14.5	14.9	15.25 to 15.5	7.95 (26 weeks)
Iron Castings (deliveries) ..	2.8	3.0	3.25	N.A.	1.7 (26 weeks)

Steel is the principal limiting factor on the expansion of British industrial output, despite the record levels of home production of crude steel. The finishing capacity of the British industry has for long been in excess of the capacity to produce the primary products. Before the war considerable quantities of finished steel, and of semi-finished steel for re-rolling, were imported. These supplies are now difficult to obtain. In conjunction with the necessity to export some quantities of finished steel directly to implement trade agreements, this means that the expansion of primary production by the home industry depends meantime on the expansion of finished steel supplies to British industry. These facts are illustrated in the following table.

U.K. PRODUCTION AND CONSUMPTION OF STEEL : '000 TONS

Year	Home Production of Ingots and Castings	Net Imports of Ingots and semi-finished (Ingot Equiv.)	Ingots Available in U.K. for finishing	Finished Equivalent	Imports of finished	Exports of finished	Home Consumption of finished (including Stocks)
1935	9,859	399	10,253	7,694	575	1,761	6,508
1936	11,785	620	12,405	9,304	510	1,660	8,154
1937	12,984	674	13,658	10,244	580	1,939	8,885
1938	10,398	401	10,799	8,099	447	1,334	7,162
1939	13,221	939	14,160	10,620	491	1,175	9,936
1940	12,975	2,294	15,269	11,452	805	853	11,404
1941	12,312	2,652	14,964	10,565	754	364	10,955
1942	12,942	1,861	14,803	10,451	472	181	10,742
1943	13,031	1,658	14,689	10,370	835	80	11,125
1944	12,142	1,099	13,241	9,431	394	164	9,711
1945	11,824	126	11,950	8,664	32	477	8,219
1946	12,695	424	13,119	9,511	45	1,672	7,884
1947	12,725	358	13,083	9,341	74	1,279	8,136
1948	14,977	404	—	11,122	*	1,448	9,674
1949	15,250	—	—	12,000	*	—	10,500
(est)	15,500	1,000†	—	12,250	*	1,600	10,700

*Included in imports of ingots.

†It is hoped that this amount will be imported, but the figure is not a forecast.

Actual supplies may fall far short of a million tons.

(Sources : Iron and Steel Board ; Economic Survey for 1949.)

Recent high levels of home production of crude steel are given in the following tables. In 1948 home production of ingots and castings was more than 2 million tons above the 1947 level ; net imports of ingots and semi-manufactures rose, but exports of finished were also higher so that about 1½ million tons extra of finished steel was available for British industry. In the first half of 1949 ingot production was more than ½ million tons higher than in the corresponding period of the previous year.

U.K. HOME PRODUCTION OF PIG IRON, STEEL INGOTS AND CASTINGS : '000 TONS

		PIG IRON			
		1949		1948	
		Weekly Average	Annual Rate	Weekly Average	Annual Rate
First Quarter	179	9,308	175	9,084
Second quarter	..	184	9,568	182	9,459
		STEEL INGOTS AND CASTINGS			
First Quarter	305	15,860	287	14,940
Second Quarter	..	307	15,964	295	15,324

U.K. DELIVERIES OF IRON CASTINGS : '000 TONS

		1949		1948	
		Weekly Average	Annual Rate	Weekly Average	Annual Rate
First Quarter	67.8	3,526	61.3	3,188
Second Quarter	..	65.0	3,380	63.7	3,315

(Source : Monthly Digest of Statistics.)

6. EMPLOYMENT

(a) Deployment of Manpower

Since the war, the total demands of home consumption and the requirements of capital investment and exports have been more than sufficient to provide employment for the whole working population. Unemployment has therefore been very low (1 to 2 per cent) and mainly short term apart from unadaptable elderly workers and certain local or regional pockets. The main employment problems have been a general shortage of manpower and specific shortages in industries whose expansion is in the national interest.

The most urgent post-war tasks were smooth and rapid transfer of labour from the forces and war industries and expansion of export industries. By the end of 1946, six million workers had been transferred into civilian industry. Owing to low unemployment there was an overall increase of about 5 per cent compared with pre-war in the total number at work so that in spite of capital losses caused by the war and of the rapid movement of labour, industrial production was only three or four per cent less than in 1938.

The new pattern of manpower distribution was different from the pre-war pattern. There was a 15 per cent increase in the number employed on manufacture for export

and 10 per cent increase in the number employed producing capital goods. Manpower used for home consumer goods and services as a whole (including agriculture) was down by 5 per cent and manpower in distribution was down by 25 per cent. The proportion of women in the working population increased from 25 per cent to 28 per cent.

This new pattern was not in the main achieved by labour controls, which were all relaxed during this period except for the orders forbidding workers employed in agriculture or coalmining to leave their industry. Partly it simply reflected the persistence of the war-time manpower pattern; partly it was maintained and achieved by publicity and persuasion and by the use of physical controls to restrict home consumption and supplies to industries catering to home consumption. Nevertheless these industries continued to expand, responding to pent-up demand after years of privation and saving. The supply of labour to key and important industries was thus further restricted.

During 1947 various measures were taken to maintain or increase the labour forces employed in industries producing goods for export, capital goods or necessary food or raw materials which might otherwise have to be imported. The recruiting campaigns for mining and textiles were intensified, the latter being directed especially towards persuading more women to undertake part-time work. Foreign workers were recruited for important undermanned industries both from overseas (especially from displaced persons camps) and from the Poles and ex-prisoners of war in this country. In October, 1947, a general control over the movement of labour was reinstated. Under the *Control of Engagement Order* 1947, most job seekers were obliged to seek jobs only through Ministry of Labour Local Offices, which tried to steer suitable workers into those industries it was planned to reinforce. The most important of these were agriculture, coalmining, tinplate, ironfounding, textiles and pottery. Persons who persistently refused suitable jobs could in the end be forced to take a job, but this power was used very rarely (only 29 times up to June, 1949). The *Registration for Employment Order* (1947), which was made at the same time, was intended to bring into employment a small number of persons not gainfully employed or gainfully occupied as well to withdraw labour from some unessential occupations. (See below, Organisation of Employment.)

To ease the inflationary pressure which was the underlying cause of the expansion of industries and services catering to home needs, the Chancellor of the Exchequer budgeted for a substantial real budget surplus, and in February, 1948, the Prime Minister appealed to business, trade unions and the public generally not to seek increases in personal incomes except in hard cases or where productivity had increased. Employers and trade unions have responded satisfactorily to this appeal.

These measures were reasonably successful. From September, 1947, to May, 1949, the total civilian labour force increased by just over 2½ per cent, while the labour force in those manufacturing industries whose requirements were given priority increased by over 7 per cent. The number of part-time women workers in manufacturing industry increased by about 15 per cent between June, 1947, and March, 1949, when it was 318,500. The number of foreign workers who were absorbed into British industry during 1948 and 1949 was about 180,000.

During 1949 there were no more large net releases from the services or armaments work and no large-scale redistribution of labour between industries was required. But it is still important to expand certain industries and to keep others up to strength. The Government is therefore continuing its existing labour policy.

The general distribution of manpower in Great Britain at mid and end 1948 and the planned distribution for the end of 1949 are shown in the following table :—

DISTRIBUTION OF MANPOWER IN GREAT BRITAIN 1948-49
(New Series)

Thousands

	Mid-1948	End-1948	End-1949
Total working population	23,146	23,185	23,200
Strength of Armed Forces	846	808	} 775
Ex-Service men and women on release leave	92	18	
Total industrial population	22,208	22,359	22,425
Of whom Men	15,160	15,279	15,335
do. Women	7,048	7,080	7,090
Coalmining	787	788	798
Other Mining and Quarrying	82	82	82
Gas, Electricity and Water	296	301	305
Transport and Communication	1,814	1,803	1,790
Agriculture	1,227	1,230	1,240
Fishing	41	41	40
Manufactures—			
Chemicals and Allied Trades	426	433	440
Metals, Engineering and Vehicles ..	3,904	3,921	3,920
Cotton	310	319	330
Wool	209	214	220
Other Textiles	429	438	445
Clothing	700	716	715
Food, Drink and Tobacco	725	738	740
Other Manufactures	1,411	1,422	1,430
Building and Contracting	1,497	1,480	1,480
Distributive Trades	2,689	2,739	2,755
Professional, financial and miscellaneous services	3,925	3,876	3,890
Public Administration—			
National Government Service	658	694	675
Local Government Service	766	776	780
Total in civil employment	21,926	22,011	22,075
Unemployed	282	348	350

The classification of industries in this table differs from that in use prior to 1948 and direct comparisons cannot be made. The figures for National and Local Government Service are, in particular, different in a number of respects: e.g. in this table the Post Office has been transferred to Communications, and the Police and Fire Services have been moved from National to Local Government Service. The National Government figures do not correspond to the figures for Civil Service manpower issued by the Treasury.

(b) Unemployment and Development Areas

The war-time Coalition Government White Paper on Employment Policy (Cmd. 6527) published in May, 1944, indicates the general policy of the present Govern-

ment, which is committed to the maintenance of a high and stable level of employment. The measures proposed in the White Paper are designed :

- (1) To secure a balanced distribution of industry and labour ;
- (2) To promote mobility of labour ;
- (3) To maintain total national expenditure at an appropriate level ;
- (4) To obtain the statistics necessary for planning (3) above ;
- (5) To maintain a reasonably stable price and wage structure.

Since the end of the war there has been—apart from a short period during the fuel crisis early in 1947—no problem of large-scale unemployment. But the problem of concentrations of unemployment in particular areas has not yet been fully solved, although the pre-war and war-time methods of dealing with this are being carried further.

Before the war, some areas in Great Britain suffered disproportionately heavy unemployment because they were too dependent upon a few industries which were either declining in importance, or were subject to violent economic changes. It was accepted, therefore, that a vigorous policy of bringing work to the workers must provide the main remedy. Rearmament and the outbreak of war led to a revival of the basic industries, and this, together with the establishment of new plants, brought to these areas a degree of prosperity unknown for many years.

It was clear that after the war special measures would again have to be taken to prevent heavy unemployment in these areas, and the Government's main aim has been to introduce a wide diversity of industry to provide enough work. The *Distribution of Industry Act, 1945*, brought together and strengthened the pre-war measures for what it significantly renamed "Development Areas"; North-East England, West Cumberland, South Wales and Monmouthshire, the Industrial Areas of Scotland, to which Wrexham and South Lancashire were subsequently added. In March, 1949, two new Development Areas were named—Merseyside and the Scottish Highlands.

Between the end of 1944 and end of June, 1948, one-half by value and one-third by number (£89,355 millions out of a total of £172,979 millions and 1,183 out of a total of 3,454) of new factory buildings approved were for the Development Areas, which contain about one-seventh of the population. By 30th June, 1948, 443 new factory buildings had been completed and 530 were under construction in the Development Areas.

On 12th June, 1949, there were 116,012 insured persons registered as unemployed in the Development Areas and 280,034 in the whole of Great Britain (252,531 in the U.K., including Northern Ireland). The rate of unemployment in the Development Areas—though falling—was still higher than in the rest of the country, but the completion and manning of factories will bring the problem still nearer to solution.

(c) Organisation of Employment

(i) *The Employers Exchange Service*—The principal agency for the implementation of the manpower provisions of the White Paper, *Employment Policy* (Cmd. 6527), is the Local Office Service of the Ministry of Labour and National Service. This service is provided by approximately 1,200 Employment Exchanges and their subsidiary Employment Offices and Branch Employment Offices, which deal with the public on all local aspects of the work of the Department. A small number of special offices deal with particular types of workers, e.g., dockers and persons employed in the building and catering trades.

Local Employment Committees, composed of representatives of employers, workers and other local interests, are attached to most Employment Exchanges as advisory bodies to secure for the Department the full benefit of local knowledge and the close co-operation of employers and workpeople.

The primary function of Local Offices is to bring together employers requiring workpeople and workers seeking employment. Their aim is to provide an efficient service both to employers and workpeople and to organise the movement of labour from job to job and from district to district in such a way that employers may obtain as quickly as possible workers suitable for their requirements, and that those in search of employment may speedily find the work best suited to their qualifications and experience.

Another important function of Local Offices is the compilation and maintenance of local employment records designed to assist in the preparation of a general assessment of the economic position and trends for the purpose of implementing the Government's policy of maintaining a high and stable level of employment.

Local Offices are also responsible for registrations under the *National Service Acts* and, where necessary, for the reference of appeals to Hardship Committees set up under the Acts. Some of these Offices are also responsible for the maintenance of the registers and for the medical examination arrangements for men liable for service with the Forces.

The following particular provisions of the Department's policy are operated through the medium of the Local Offices :

1. The administration of the *Youth Employment Service* except in those areas where local education authorities have submitted schemes to the Minister and been authorised by him to undertake this work under Section 10 of the *Employment and Training Act, 1948*.

The aims of the Service are to :—

- (a) give vocational guidance ;
- (b) place young people in suitable employment ;
- (c) keep contact with young people during adolescence.

Arrangements for the development of the *Youth Employment Service* were instituted in April, 1946, as a result of the recommendations of a Committee (commonly known as the Ince Committee) which was appointed by the Minister of Labour to consider the measures necessary to establish a comprehensive Youth Employment Service.

Since then the National Youth Employment Service, whether operated locally by the Ministry of Labour and National Service or the Education Authority, has been controlled by the Central Youth Employment Executive, staffed by officers of the Ministry of Labour and National Service, the Ministry of Education and the Scottish Education Department. This Joint Executive is part of the Ministry of Labour and National Service, which is responsible to Parliament for it. The Minister has appointed a National Youth Employment Council and separate Advisory Committees for Scotland and Wales to advise him on questions relating to the Service. A scheme of grants enables boys and girls with special aptitudes to take jobs away from home, if that is their only chance of being properly trained.

2. The maintenance of the *Register of Disabled Persons*, the placing in employment or vocational training of such persons and follow-up action to ensure that they have been satisfactorily settled.

The *Disabled Persons (Employment) Act, 1944*, has as its main provision the establishment of a Register of Disabled Persons and it is compulsory for an employer of over 20 persons to employ a percentage of registered disabled persons (the standard percentage is at present 3). It should be noted that the Register is not confined to personnel discharged from the Forces, but is open to all disabled persons over 16 years of age. There were, at 18th July, 1949, 919,054 names on this Register.

In May, 1945, the Minister of Labour and National Service appointed the first Board of Directors of the *Disabled Persons Employment Corporation*, since renamed

Remploy Ltd. The function of this body, set up under the Act, is to make special provisions for disabled persons, who, by reason of the nature of the severity of their disablement, are unlikely to obtain employment or work on their own account except under special conditions. The Corporation, in addition to providing facilities direct, supplements the work of voluntary organisations and may also make payments to Local Authorities. It had by 31st July, 1949, 55 factories, and it is hoped to have 73 in operation by the end of December, 1949.

Persons less severely disabled but unable to find suitable employment without training are eligible for courses of vocational training and for grants towards further education and business training, even if they lack the war service qualifications required for the able-bodied. (See below Vocational Training Scheme, the Further Education and Training Scheme and Grants for Training in Business Administration.) Industrial rehabilitation centres have been provided for persons not yet quite fit enough to start work or training. One of these, Egham, Surrey, is residential, while a number of non-residential centres are being started in the larger towns. Maintenance allowances are payable in all cases.

3. The operation of *Labour Controls*.

Following the end of the war labour controls were gradually relaxed and by the end of two years almost completely removed except in agriculture and coalmining. Some controls have, however, had to be reimposed temporarily in an attempt to guide manpower into important undermanned industries.

The present controls are based on two Orders, the *Control of Engagement Order*, 1947, and the *Registration for Employment Order*, 1947 (made under Regulation 58A of the Defence (General) Regulations, 1939), and on a limited use of the powers of direction deriving from Regulation 58A (1).

The *Control of Engagement Order*, 1947, came into force on 6th October, 1947. It ruled that men aged 18 to 50 and women aged 18 to 40 with certain exceptions might only seek work—and be sought for work—through Ministry of Labour Local Offices or approved Employment Agencies. These Local Offices and Employment Agencies try to guide labour into industries where it is needed by offering each job-seeker the choice of suitable jobs where his or her work will be of value to the national effort. In the very few cases where persons refuse to accept essential work, powers of direction can be and have been used.

Excepted from this Order are women who have living with them children of their own under 15 years of age, ex-Servicemen and women on paid resettlement leave, and persons seeking work in agriculture, coalmining, the Merchant Navy or the dockyards. Employment in a managerial, professional, administrative or executive capacity is also excepted.

The *Registration for Employment Order*, 1947, came into force on 8th December, 1947. It requires, with certain exceptions, that men aged 18 to 50 and women aged 18 to 40 not gainfully employed or not gainfully occupied, or persons engaged in street trading in towns with a population of over 20,000, during a specified period must register at a local Employment Exchange, and that persons carrying on certain unessential undertakings (e.g., Bookmaking, Night Clubs) must register particulars about themselves and their employees. The exceptions to the Order include women having household responsibilities to their husbands or to children, registered disabled persons, ex-service men and women on paid resettlement leave and persons already registered with the Ministry of Labour.

4. Recruitment under the *Vocational Training Scheme*.

The *Government Vocational Training Scheme* has been devised to help those men and women who served in the Armed Forces, Merchant Navy, full-time Civil Defence or in work of national importance, and who, owing to their service, have not had a chance to start or complete their training for a skilled occupation, or who have had

their occupation interrupted by service and are in need of training to enable them to obtain employment of a satisfactory kind.

Training is given at Government Training Centres in different places throughout the country, in technical colleges and in employers' establishments. Application for training may be made in the first instance at the Local Office where the applicant's suitability is considered.

A comprehensive range of trades, ranging from agriculture to retail distribution, from building to shorthand-typing, is covered. The courses last normally for six months. Maintenance allowances are payable to persons while in training. Persons with dependants are paid higher rates than those without dependants. During the period from the inception of this scheme on 22nd July, 1945, up to 27th June, 1949, the number of trainees placed in employment was 73,910.

The Trade Unions have agreed to accept trainees who complete the course satisfactorily as though they had entered through a normal apprenticeship. In a trade where it is usual for an employee to provide his own tools he is given these free on taking up a job. The job itself is found whenever possible by the Employment Exchange.

(ii) *District Offices.* These Offices, at present 60 in number, co-ordinate the work of the Employment Exchange Service and keep under constant survey the employment position and prospects in their respective districts. They are responsible for relations with industrial organisations on the district level and for controlling the work of the District Welfare Officers and the District Disablement Resettlement Officers. Each District Office, which is under the charge of a District Officer, is also an Employment Exchange.

The larger District Offices have taken over from the District Manpower Offices, set up in war time, the duties of dealing with applications for deferment of military service.

(iii) *Appointments Department*

The *Appointments Office Service* is intended to meet the needs of those who seek higher appointments than are normally dealt with in an Employment Exchange, i.e., those qualified, or who wish to qualify, for professional, technical, administrative, managerial and supervisory posts. There are 14 of these Appointments Offices in Great Britain staffed by officials of the Ministry of Labour and National Service.

In addition to action to bring together applicants for higher appointments and employers with appointments to offer, Appointment Offices are responsible for the executive work in connection with the following particular phases of the Department's policy.

1. *The Further Education and Training Scheme.* This operates for young men and women, who, but for their national service, would normally have been taking courses of further education, or would have been training for a business or professional career.

Awards may be made for full-time training at a university or other educational institution, or for part-time training taken in conjunction with paid employment. All awards are subject to a financial test. Full-time courses include the payment of tuition fees and a maintenance allowance which may include allowances for dependent wife and children; part-time awards cover only tuition fees. Awards granted up to 30th July, 1949, numbered 134,763.

2. *Scheme of Grants for Training in Business Administration.*

General Business Courses of three months duration for students over 23 years of age and of three terms for younger students are now being given by commercial and technical colleges. These courses are not confined to grant-aided students

but suitable ex-service applicants can receive grants to enable them to study under a scheme of grants for Training in Business Administration.

7. INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS AND WELFARE

(a) Industrial Relations

The structure of industrial relations in post-war Britain is established mainly on a voluntary basis. In a few cases this is supplemented, as described below, by machinery set up by the Government. The system of industrial relations rests on the organisation of employers and workers into employers' associations and trade unions. These organisations discuss and negotiate terms and conditions of employment and other matters affecting the workpeople at their work. In some cases these negotiations are conducted simply by meetings, which are held when necessary, of the organisations concerned, in other cases voluntary joint machinery has been established on a permanent basis. Normally these arrangements suffice to settle all questions which are raised, but provision has been made for matters not so settled to be referred for settlement to independent arbitration. In certain trades where the voluntary organisation of employers and workers is not sufficiently developed to settle such matters by collective bargaining or to secure observance throughout the trade of agreements so reached, provision has also been made by the State for this to be done by machinery set up under the *Wages Councils Act*, *Road Haulage Wages Act*, *Catering Wages Act*, and *Agricultural Wages Act*.

(i) Employers' Organisations

Many employers in Great Britain are members of employers' associations. Some of these associations have been in existence for a considerable period. They are generally organised on an "industry basis"—some being purely local in character and dealing with a section of an industry only, while others have a national scope and concern themselves with the whole of an industry. In some cases local associations of the above kind are organised into district or national federations.

The central organ of employers' associations is the *British Employers' Confederation*, to which the majority of employers' associations and federations are affiliated. It deals with matters affecting the interests of organised employers in their relations with their workpeople, and is recognised by the Government as the principal channel of consultation between Government Departments and representatives of organised employers as a whole on all such matters.

(ii) Trade Unions

A large number of workers in industry, including agriculture and public services such as transport, are organised into trade unions. These have grown up gradually and independently over a great many years, and consequently their form and organisation vary considerably. Organisation started more than two hundred years ago among the skilled craftsmen and spread later to the general labouring and unskilled classes. More recently there has been a tendency to organise among the clerical, technical and administrative workers in a number of occupations.

In 1948 the total membership of British trade unions was 9,301,000. There were 706 separate trade unions, but 67 per cent of all trade union members were in 17 big unions.

Some of the unions cover a single craft or group of crafts, although their members may be employed in a variety of industries; others cover all grades and classes of workpeople in a particular industry or range of industries. In the case of the large general workers' unions the range of industries covered is very wide. Each union is an autonomous body with its own organisation, the basis of which is the local branch or lodge. The branch elects officers and committees and deals with all matters which can be dealt with locally. Matters of wider interest are dealt with

by unions' district or national bodies, which decide the policy of the union and may engage in joint discussions with the employers' associations in the industries in which its members are employed.

The central organ of the trade union movement is the *Trades Union Congress*, to which the great majority of substantial trade unions are affiliated. An annual conference of delegates from affiliated unions settles its general policy. The General Council elected annually by the Congress as its executive body, carries this policy into effect.

The Trades Union Congress is recognised by the Government as the principal channel of consultation between the Government Departments and representatives of organised workers over the country as a whole on matters widely affecting their interests.

(iii) *Voluntary Joint Negotiating Machinery*

1. *At National level.*

While in some cases all matters affecting terms and conditions of employment are discussed on an *ad hoc* basis between the employers' organisation and the trade unions concerned, in other industries, standing bodies, generally known as *Joint Industrial Councils*, exist for dealing with such matters by joint discussion at a national level. There are about 115 of these bodies. They are composed of representatives of both sides of the industry with in some cases an independent chairman. Their functions vary considerably, some being merely wage negotiating bodies, while the most advanced deal with a wide range of subjects affecting the interests of the industry concerned. If it is not found possible to reach agreement as to the terms of settlement, they may agree to refer the question to an independent arbitrator, or to any of the methods provided under the *Industrial Courts Acts* (see below).

2. *At district and factory level.*

Similar arrangements exist at district and factory level in many industries, where matters are either discussed between the appropriate representatives of the two sides on an *ad hoc* basis, or through regular machinery provided by District Joint Industrial Councils or similar bodies and Works Councils. Such bodies discuss the application of agreements reached at a national level to their district or factory, but as a rule have no power to alter the terms of such national agreements. They also discuss new problems which may arise, and if no solution can be found at factory or district level, these may be referred to the national body.

(iv) *Statutory Wage-Regulating Machinery*

In certain industries in which, owing to the lack of organisation among employers and workers, voluntary negotiating arrangements do not exist for the effective settlement of terms and conditions of employment or are inadequate to secure their observance by voluntary methods throughout the industry, statutory bodies known as *Wages Councils and Boards* have been set up. These are composed of representatives of employers and workers in the industries with the addition of certain independent members, and they have powers to submit to the Minister concerned, usually the Minister of Labour, proposals for minimum terms and conditions. The Minister is empowered to make an Order giving such minimum terms and conditions statutory force.

Between 2 and 3 million workers have their terms of employment determined by such statutory machinery.

(v) *State Provision for Conciliation, Arbitration and Investigation*

Under authority derived from the *Conciliation Act, 1896*, and the *Industrial Courts Act, 1919*, the Minister of Labour has certain powers to assist industry to resolve disputes which it is not found possible to dispose of by voluntary machinery. These

powers are all intended to supplement and not to supersede voluntary methods and joint machinery.

To assist industry by conciliation a staff of conciliation officers forms part of the Ministry of Labour. Their duties are to keep in touch with the course of relations between employers and workers at national, district, and in some cases factory level and to assist them, if requested, to settle their problems by joint discussion and negotiation.

Disputes which cannot be settled in this way may, at the request of both parties, be referred to voluntary arbitration, either by a single arbitrator, or an *ad hoc* Board of Arbitration, or by the Industrial Court, a permanent tribunal established under the *Industrial Courts Act*. At present, under an emergency war-time measure which remains for the time being in force, provision is also made for disputes which are reported to the Minister by one of the parties thereto, to be referred if not otherwise disposed of to the *National Arbitration Tribunal*, the decisions of which are legally binding on the parties. The Minister may also, if a dispute occurs or is apprehended which is not susceptible of settlement by any of the above methods, appoint a *Court of Inquiry* or Committee of Investigation. The reports of such bodies are primarily for the information of Parliament and of the public, but though not binding on the parties any recommendation made in such reports is normally accepted as the basis of a settlement of the difference.

(vi) *Liaison between the Government and Industry over Matters affecting the Relations between Employers and Workers*

As will be seen from the foregoing paragraphs, the Government is in contact with representatives of employers and workers at all levels on matters affecting their common interests. At local and district level the conciliation officers of the Ministry of Labour keep in touch with the representatives of both sides of industry, while at national level officers of the Department often attend as liaison officers in some cases, and by invitation and courtesy in others, the meetings of Joint Industrial Councils. Standing arrangements also exist for consultation between the Government and the British Employers' Confederation and Trades Union Congress through machinery provided by the *National Joint Advisory Councils* in which both bodies are represented.

(vii) *Joint Consultation in Industry at Factory Level*

In addition to those arrangements already described, the purpose of which is mainly but not exclusively for discussion and settlement of terms and conditions of employment, arrangements also exist and are being extended in a number of industries for joint consultations at factory level between employers and workers on all matters relating to production. These matters are often formally discussed, particularly in smaller establishments, on an informal basis and in some industries the joint bodies at all levels, national, district and factory, which discuss and negotiate terms and conditions of employment, also discuss matters relating to production. In a number of other industries separate arrangements exist for joint consultation on these matters through the machinery of *Joint Production Committees* or similar bodies, which are set up at factory level and are excluded from the discussion of matters dealt with by ordinary negotiating machinery. The constitution of these Joint Production Committees varies and in some industries is regulated by arrangement at national level between the ordinary negotiating bodies in that industry.

(8) *Industrial Welfare*

The working conditions of British workers are determined by—
(1) Acts of Parliament and statutory rules and orders made under their authority;
(2) Agreements concluded between employers and trade unions;
(3) Standards voluntarily maintained by their employers.

young persons aged 16-18, and to 44 for those under 16. Proper provision must be made for meal intervals, night intervals and a regular weekly rest-day. Overtime work is restricted for women and juveniles and forbidden for those under 16. Some relaxation of these provisions and of the normally strict prohibition of night-work for women and juveniles has been made in view of the need for staggering hours of work, in order to spread the electricity load. The Act also provided for the medical examination of all factory employees under 16 by Examining Surgeons, appointed by the Chief Inspector of Factories, in order to determine their fitness for work.

Special regulations for particular industries and processes aim to prevent and control occupational disease by guarding the worker against noxious substances and other special dangers and by periodical medical examinations by the Examining Surgeons.

Regulations may also be made for medical supervision in special cases, either in individual factories or in any class of factories. As in the case of safety supervision, the employer will normally adopt such arrangements on a voluntary basis.

The *Factory (Canteens) Order, 1943*, made under Defence Regulations, empowers the Chief Inspector of Factories to direct that a canteen where hot meals can be purchased be set up in any factory with over 250 workers.

The *Factories Act, 1948*, which received the Royal Assent on 30th July, strengthened and modified certain provisions of the *Factories Act, 1937*. It provided (i) that all young persons under 18 must be medically examined on entry to employment in factories, docks or building sites, and must be re-examined annually; (ii) that premises intended to be used as a factory must be notified to the Inspector at least one month before, instead of within one month after, work has begun; (iii) that seats must be provided for those who can work sitting or who have opportunities for sitting without detriment to their work; (iv) working seats must be designed suitably for the worker and the work.

Mines and Quarries Acts, of which the most important is the *Coal Mines Act, 1912*, form the basis of an elaborate statutory safety code dealing with underground ventilation, support of underground workings, winding and haulage, alternative exits, explosive risks, rescue squads and first aid, competency examinations for managers, surveyors and inspectors, and the detailed conduct of mining operations. The employment of women and children underground has been prohibited since 1842.

Under the *Coal Industry Nationalisation Act, 1946*, the *National Coal Board*, which assumed the direction of the industry on 1st January, 1947, was charged with responsibility for promoting the safety, health and welfare of its employees. Responsibility for the administration of the *Mines and Quarries Acts* and for assisting the National Coal Board to maintain the highest standards rests with the Mines and Quarries Department of the Ministry of Fuel and Power. Executive responsibility lies with the Mines and Quarries Inspectorate, which is part of the department.

Under the *Agricultural Wages Act, 1924*, the Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries is empowered to give statutory effect to recommendations on wages and hours of agricultural workers, made to him by the Agricultural Wages Board. Under the *Road Haulage Act*, the *Catering Wages Act* and the *Wages Councils Act*, the Minister of Labour and National Service has powers to give effect to the recommendations of other similar statutory bodies for fixing wages, hours, and conditions of work in certain industries lacking adequate voluntary organisation. (See Industrial Relations, p. 91.) Under the *Holidays with Pay Act, 1938*, the recommendations of all statutory wage-fixing bodies can include the granting of up to seven days paid holiday annually in addition to the six regular public holidays.

The adequacy of welfare legislation in establishments outside the scope of the *Factories Act* and *Mines and Quarries Acts* has been the subject of a Home Office inquiry.

A Committee was set up under the chairmanship of Sir Ernest Gowers in January, 1946, by the Home Secretary and the Secretary of State for Scotland to investigate working conditions in establishments outside the scope of the *Factory Acts* and *Mines and Quarries Acts*, and the hours of work of young persons.

Its report published in March, 1949, recommended that appropriate provisions for safety, health and welfare contained in the *Shops Act* and the *Factory Acts* should be applicable, with a few modifications, both to shops and offices. Regulations should be made to cover sanitary accommodation, space, ventilation, temperature, lighting, cleanliness, washing facilities and clothes lockers, provision of meals, seats for use at work and for occasional rest during working hours, fencing of dangerous machinery and escape from fire. Maximum weights allowable for women to lift must be prescribed and the employment of women within seven weeks after confinement should be an offence.

Enforcement of protective legislation for shops and offices should rest with the Local Authority through the sanitary inspectorate, while the Home Office and Scottish Home Department should be responsible for co-ordination and advice.

The recommendations for hotels and catering establishments and for theatres were broadly similar, and the same enforcement machinery was proposed. In rail and long distance transport, while the general tenor of the recommendations was little different, it was recognised that difficulties of site, construction and supply would necessitate exceptions to the standards set. To deal with these and other special problems, the creation of a railway inspectorate under the Minister of Transport was recommended.

In agriculture the recommendations were limited to the supply and maintenance of first-aid kit, the provision of washing facilities and such sanitary accommodation as the local sanitary authority might think necessary, and the granting of powers to the Ministry of Agriculture and the Secretary of State for Scotland to prescribe what machinery must be fenced and what dangerous substances might not be used without protective clothing. Enforcement should be left to the existing technical staffs of the Ministry of Agriculture.

Conditions in domestic work are not easily susceptible to control by legislation, but it was suggested that the Ministry of Labour should draft a code of good employment.

The Committee recommended a maximum working week of 45 hours and a maximum working day of nine hours for young workers under 18. It would extend this statutory protection to 92½ per cent of young workers, whereas only 65 per cent are now protected. Enforcement would be left to the authority generally responsible for the enforcement of protective legislation in the particular place of work.

(ii) Working Conditions in Practice

Earnings.—Time rates for British manual workers vary mainly between 2s. and 3s. 2d. an hour for men and 1s. 4d. and 2s. for women. These basic time rates are not, however, an accurate guide to average earnings. Higher time rates are sometimes paid, and piece rates, shift rates and overtime rates serve to raise the level of average earnings. The Ministry of Labour and National Service conduct a 6-monthly survey of earnings and hours of work in some of the principal British industries. The survey for April, 1949, covered over 6 million workers and showed the average hourly earnings in all the industries covered to be as follows :—

Men 21 years and over	3s.	0d.	
Youths and boys under 21 years	1s.	4 0d.	
Women 18 years and over	1s.	10 2d.	
Girls under 18 years	1s.	2 2d.	51
All workers	2s.	1 6d.	.. per

Average weekly earnings were :—

Men	139s. 11d.
Youths and boys	58s. 6d.
Women	77s. 2d.
Girls	50s. 3d.
All workers	119s. 4d.

The principal industries not covered by this survey were agriculture, where the minimum weekly wage rate for men is now £4 14s. ; coalmining, where the average weekly cash earnings for men were estimated by the Coal Board at 167s., plus 7s. 7d. in kind in April, 1949; railway services; and dock labour, in which average earnings for April to June, 1949, were 166s. 6d.

Hours of Work.—The hours of women and young persons under 18 are limited to 48 a week and those of young persons under 16 to 44 a week; in fact normal hours of work for all ages and sexes are usually shorter. Agreed weekly hours mainly vary between 42 and 46, and average between 44 and 45. Hours actually worked are somewhat longer owing to overtime working. The survey conducted by the Ministry of Labour and National Service in April, 1949, into earnings and hours showed that average hours actually worked were as follows :—

Men	46.6
Youths and boys	43.9
Women	41.8
Girls	42.4
All workers	45.3

Safety.—Safety depends in practice at least as much on the education of the worker as upon safety regulations. The Accident Prevention Movement, a voluntary educational campaign, is strongly supported by the Factory and Mines and Quarries Inspectorates. Inspectors inquire into safety problems, including the safety aspects of machine design and specification, circulate expert advice by personal exhortation, lectures and literature, encourage the appointment of Safety Officers and the formation of Accident Prevention Committees. A Safety, Health and Welfare Museum in London is maintained by the Ministry of Labour and National Service.

In road, rail and air transport most of the work is outside the jurisdiction of the Factory Inspectorate, but elaborate safety codes are laid down by the Railway Executive, the London Transport Executive and the Air Corporations. The Royal Society for the Prevention of Accidents helps the Accident Prevention Movement by providing posters and pamphlets and by organising training courses for Safety Officers.

Fatal industrial accidents have tended to diminish during the twentieth century. They rose somewhat in factories during the early years of World War II. Since then, however, there has been a further decline. Fatal accidents in factories numbered 861 in 1948. Fatal accidents in mines numbered 467 (about 0.26 per 100,000 manshifts) in 1949.

Health and Welfare.—Employers, with the help of Government Departments and agencies, trade unions and other voluntary associations, in many cases achieve health and welfare standards considerably higher than those prescribed by law. Welfare expenditure of individual firms is very variable, but may cost a progressive firm over £40 per worker per year. Much of the time and work of the Factory Inspectors and Advisers (who numbered 366 in October, 1948) and of the Mines and Quarries Inspectors (who numbered about 150 in October, 1948) is devoted to the promotion of these higher standards.

Health and welfare standards vary considerably from one factory to another. Between a third and a half of the factory workers of the country are employed by

small firms employing less than 250 workers, many of whom, for economic reasons, have not raised their standard of welfare so far as might be wished.

The amenities provided by large factories depend partly on the employees' needs and desires. The requirements of a factory where the work is safe and easy, and many employees are women or young persons, are different from those of engineering or steel works, where work is arduous, dirty and dangerous and mainly undertaken by men.

Progressive firms are careful to find out what their employees want, and welfare policy is often decided in consultation with the workers, whether through regular consultative machinery or by other means.

An increasing number of firms in Britain provide a whole-time or part-time doctor, an industrial nurse, and a canteen with hot meals, pay part or all of the cost of clubs and sports grounds, operate retirement and sickness insurance schemes supplementing the State insurance schemes, and afford training and educational facilities. Some have their own rehabilitation centres or support convalescent homes.

First-aid arrangements to specified standards are obligatory in all factories.

Medical examinations are compulsory in the majority of dangerous occupations and for all young workers under 18. These are carried out by some 1,700 doctors (known as "Appointed Factory Doctors"), mostly on a part-time basis. Outside these statutory requirements there are over 3,000 doctors, including almost 300 whole-time, and several thousand nurses and assistant nurses serving industrial health to an increasing extent. Steadily more doctors and nurses are being trained for this work. The aim is to supply to industry a "quality" occupational health service of a specialised preventive character, not to duplicate the personal health service.

Prompt and effective action in the field of industrial health depends, among other things, on an adequate industrial health research service, properly integrated both with industrial health services and industrial research. Apart from field investigations carried out by the Factory Department of the Ministry of Labour and its specialised medical and technical branches, this is provided for by Government agencies such as the Medical Research Council, the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research (including the National Physical Laboratory), the Government Chemist; by the Departments of Industrial Health and Social Medicine of the Universities, and by the Research Departments of various large industrial concerns. The field is covered by a number of general and special committees.

During and since World War II the provision of meals for workers at their place of work has become usual in large undertakings and quite common in smaller ones. The total number of factory canteens in factories at the end of 1948 was 14,717. There were also some 1,000 colliery canteens providing meals for about 98 per cent of coalminers. Any surplus is used to improve the canteen or some other welfare services. Losses are borne by the firm.

Many workers, especially the older workers, like to get right away from their working companions during their hours of leisure, but there are also many who like to share leisure activities with their workmates. A great number of clubs and associations for sport, hobbies and cultural and recreational activities, spring up spontaneously within large and even medium-sized organisations. While the running costs of these varied activities are usually met by the employees who engage in them, the management often helps by providing sports grounds, halls and any major permanent equipment that may be needed. Most workers prefer to take their main holiday with their family—usually at the seaside if possible. Some of the younger workers, however, like holiday camps, and it is not unusual for the management to arrange such camps and pay one-third of their cost. Day outings by motor

coach are very popular with workers of all ages, particularly on Bank Holidays. The firm often pays a substantial part of the cost.

In raising their standards of health and welfare manufacturing firms have the assistance of the Factory Department of the Ministry of Labour and National Service as well as of various official and voluntary bodies, such as the Industrial Health Research Board, a subsidiary of the official Medical Research Council, the Central Council for Health Education and the Industrial Welfare Society, which are both voluntary bodies. The National Coal Board similarly has the help of the Ministry of Fuel and Power and of the Miners' Welfare Commission, a statutory body financed by a levy on the output of coal.

More and more emphasis is being put on the social and psychological aspects of health and welfare. Since the war, need for increased production and shortage of manpower have made pleasant surroundings and congenial human relationships, always desirable in themselves and important to efficiency, assume an additional value as an aid to recruitment. Bright colour schemes are being introduced in many factories. The psychological causes and treatment of minor illnesses, depression and absenteeism are receiving attention. At the Industrial Rehabilitation Centre at Roffey Park, Sussex, founded by 170 leading firms and now taken over by the National Health Service, treatment is given to industrial misfits and employees suffering from indeterminate ill health. Concern to increase the satisfaction which the worker gets from his work has been a major factor in shaping the policies of Government and industry in the fields of education for work and industrial relations.

III. SOCIAL SERVICES

I. STATE AND VOLUNTARY SERVICES

(a) Introduction

In Britain the State is now responsible, either through central or local government authorities, for a range of services covering subsistence for the needy, education and health services for all, housing, employment or maintenance, the care of the aged and the handicapped and the nutrition of mothers and children, besides sickness and industrial injury benefits, widows' and retirement pensions and children's allowances.

Co-operation : None of the services has been imposed by the State upon an unwilling public. All of them are the result of co-operative effort between the successive Governments and the people whom they governed. As the new ideas were born and translated into reality, there has been no attempt to destroy the spirit of voluntary service which had in most cases inspired them. Where voluntary organisations were doing good work, they have been encouraged to continue, whether in school, hospital, or factory or in the provision of houses. It is the function of the State to supplement the services and provide financial assistance, to see that they are brought within the reach of every citizen, to ensure that the necessary standards are maintained, and to hold a balance so that the needs of everyone are considered and as far as possible met.

The needs of war stimulated the development of machinery for joint consultation and joint action between voluntary societies working on the same problems. The Standing Conference of Voluntary Organisations provided the means by which the statutory authorities could approach the voluntary societies in connection with welfare and social work in relation to war conditions. The same pressure of events caused the State to increase its assistance to voluntary organisations from which it was seeking help.

War-time Developments : Some of the measures introduced to provide for social needs arising out of the late war have passed permanently into the social service system. The national nutrition schemes, which supply free or cheap milk and vitamin supplements to mothers and young children, and meals to many more schoolchildren than ever before, are, for instance, to go on. Similarly the practice, adopted during the war by the Minister of Health and certain of the local authorities, of employing Welfare Officers to be responsible for the welfare of those evacuated is continuing for the benefit of old people and others.

These measures were only a part of the constructive work done during the war years. It was during the war years, too, that the idea of social security for all "from the cradle to the grave" was first given expression under official auspices in the Beveridge Report. It was during the war that the new national health service was first discussed, that a new Education Act was passed, and that preliminary steps were taken to plan post-war programmes of housing and town and country planning.

(b) Voluntary Organisations

Voluntary organisations were the pioneers of nearly all of the social services. They provided schools, hospitals, clinics, dispensaries, and social and recreational clubs before these were provided by the State. They made themselves responsible for the welfare of the very young and the very old, the homeless and the handicapped, before it was generally accepted that the whole community had a responsibility towards these people. Where the services and the facilities they provided were good, they have been encouraged to continue and given State support ; and it has been

expressly and officially stated that in the new, expanded services they will still have an important part to play.

(i) *Co-ordination of voluntary services*: The number of voluntary charitable societies and institutions in Britain runs into thousands. Some of them are large and some are small and local in character. Some have general aims and others have been established for a particular purpose. All are at present showing a tendency towards co-ordination—towards joining up with other societies and with Local Authorities engaged on the same work.

Foremost among societies providing general social service are the *National Council of Social Service* and the *Family Welfare Association*. The National Council of Social Service was established to create a closer link between the machinery of Government and the voluntary activities of the ordinary citizen; to co-ordinate the activities of local councils of social service; and to bring together national organisations concerned with special aspects of social welfare in such groups as, for example, the *National Old People's Welfare Committee*, and the *Standing Conference of National Voluntary Youth Organisations*. The Family Welfare Association works on personal lines to help any individual or family in need or difficulty. It has a number of District Committees in London and family case work agencies affiliated to it in the provinces.

The major societies caring for homeless children are to-day represented on the *National Council of Associated Children's Homes*. There is also a *Central Council for the Care of Cripples*.

Other examples of joint consultation and action in a specialised field are the *National Association for Mental Health* (established in 1943 as the Provisional National Council for Mental Health) and the *Women's Group on Public Welfare* (originally set up in 1940 to consider the social consequences of evacuation).

A *National Corporation for the Care of Old People* was established in July, 1947, by the Nuffield Foundation in co-operation with the Lord Mayor's Air Raid Distress Fund. Its purpose is to stimulate and to give financial support to schemes for the welfare of the aged, to establish and demand desirable standards for old people's homes, to maintain an expert technical advisory service and to encourage and to undertake research and experiment for the welfare of old people.

(ii) *Post-war activities of voluntary war-time organisations*: Apart from the old established *British Red Cross Society*, which continues its invaluable work and is extending its activities into new fields, particularly the welfare of civilian disabled, of invalid and crippled children, and the aged and infirm, war-time organisations such as the *Women's Voluntary Services* and the *Citizens' Advice Bureaux* (of which there are still over 530) are finding, with official support, scope for their activities in post-war Britain. The *Citizens' Advice Bureaux*, for example, act as interpreters between the Government Departments and the ordinary citizen, and though the inquiries are somewhat fewer than during the war, more skill and time are often needed for their solution.

Marriage guidance as a separate service has arisen to meet a need already felt before the war and aggravated by it. The *Marriage Guidance Council*, now the *National Marriage Guidance Council*, was first formed in 1938. After interruption by the war, it restarted in 1943 its work of promoting education for marriage and family life. Advice is now being given in about 100 centres throughout Britain both to the married and to those contemplating marriage, who seek help from the voluntary counsellors of the local marriage guidance group. Panels of experts (ministers of religion, doctors and lawyers) act as consultants. The *Catholic Marriage Advisory Council*, formed in 1946, and the *Family Welfare Association*, as a branch of its activities, have also started work on similar lines.

The work was begun entirely by voluntary effort but, having proved its value, it is now grant-aided. In the year 1949/50 Exchequer grants totalling £8,500

have been made for the work to the bodies named and a further £5,000 allotted for the selection and training of counsellors. A Home Office Training Board has been set up.*

(c) The Social Worker

While the voluntary worker giving full- or part-time service has done pioneer work in many of Britain's social services and continues to play an essential part in probably every service, social services of all kinds increasingly depend for their operation primarily on the professional social worker, that is the full-time salaried worker trained in the principles and technique of social service. There are seventeen professional associations of social workers in Britain. Most of these are affiliated to the British Federation of Social Workers.

Voluntary organisations have been the pioneers in the employment and training of social workers, but it is a significant fact that central government departments and local authorities are progressively employing trained social workers in greater numbers and in more services. The late war did much to hasten this development. Such workers include children's care workers, family case workers, neighbourhood workers, youth leaders, hospital almoners, mental health workers, psychiatric social workers, women housing managers, personnel managers, probation officers and moral welfare workers. Each group forms a specialised profession, but all have in common the duty to effect adjustment between statutory provision and individual needs, and to provide the personal approach so often necessary to secure for the intended beneficiaries of a service its full benefits—in short, to individualise the social services. On the other hand, it is also the task of every social worker to help those with whom he or she deals to take their full part in the life and work of the community.

Training for Social Service

Nineteen universities or university colleges in the United Kingdom offer courses in social science leading to a degree, certificate or diploma. Training for many forms of social service consists of a Diploma or Certificate course, generally of two years' duration for non-graduates and one year for graduates, followed by a short period, usually between three and twelve months, of specialised training for a particular service. Certain posts are open to holders of degrees, certificates or diplomas in social studies without further training. In these posts specialised training is usually given after appointment.

The specialised training for the various branches of social service is usually organised by the respective professional organisations.

Courses for certificates and diplomas include lectures and tutorial classes, instructional visits and practical experience under skilled supervision. A typical course covers the following range of subjects—economics, social and industrial history, psychology, sociology, public and social administration, and public health and hygiene. Details vary with the university, which makes its own regulations, but there exists a Joint University Council for Social Studies and Public Administration.

The Carnegie United Kingdom Trust has set up a committee to study the practical possibilities of establishing on a comprehensive scale, and in association with an appropriate university, a Carnegie School of Social Work for the training of social workers.

(d) 5th July, 1948

On 5th July, 1948, there came into force in Britain five important Acts of Parliament dealing respectively with national insurance, industrial injuries, a national health service, the care of children, and a scheme of national assistance for those in

* Report of the (Home Office) Departmental Committee on Grants for the Development of Marriage Guidance (Cmd. 7566, Nov., 1948, H.M.S.O. 6d.). See also Final Report of the Committee on Procedure in Matrimonial Causes (Cmd. 7024, Feb., 1947, H.M.S.O., 9d.).

acute need. Taken together they constitute what might well be called a new charter of social security. They do not introduce any great revolutionary principle. If collectively they amount to the biggest single step ever taken in this direction, it is because the benefits and services which they provide are for the first time comprehensive. With only a few exceptions every man, woman and child in the country is covered, regardless of his social status, his wealth or his occupation. Many new forms of benefit are provided, too, covering eventualities and needs at every stage of life, from a maternity grant before birth to a payment for funeral expenses at death.

In conception the scheme is a compromise between fully State-financed services and services completely paid for by contributions, just as in administration it is a compromise between centralism and devolution of responsibility.

2. NATIONAL INSURANCE AND ASSISTANCE

Four measures designed to secure a complete reorganisation and unification of the social insurance and assistance services in Britain are now on the Statute Book. This unification is a matter on which all political parties are agreed. In March, 1943, Mr. Churchill, as Prime Minister in the Coalition Government, said : "... You must rank me and my colleagues as strong partisans of national compulsory insurance for all classes, for all purposes, from the cradle to the grave," and in the King's Speech opening the first session of the new Parliament (15th August, 1945) it was stated : "... You will be asked to approve measures to provide a comprehensive scheme of insurance against industrial injuries ... to extend the existing scheme of social insurance (and to establish a national health service)."

(a) Summary of Benefits

The four measures—*National Insurance Act, 1946*; *Family Allowances Act, 1945*; *National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Act, 1946*; and *National Assistance Act, 1948*—protect every citizen of the United Kingdom against all major disasters or disabilities which economic ill-fortune or mortality can inflict. He or she is insured, by the receipt of substantial benefits, against loss of subsistence or earning power from the contingencies of unemployment, injury, sickness, or retirement. A mother gets a maternity benefit; a family gets an allowance for every child after the first. A widow receives a pension, and a guardian an allowance for each child in his or her care. At death a grant is paid to meet funeral and other expenses. These benefits are received in return for (compulsory) contributions by the citizen, supplemented by the employer and/or the State. Details of the benefits and of the contributions are given below under the analysis of each of the four Acts, but the main items may be roughly summarised here.

BENEFITS

	Basic Rate	Extra Allowances and Conditions
<i>Family Allowance : Allowance</i>	5s. per week	For each child after first.
<i>National Insurance : Unemployment or Sickness Benefit or Retirement Pension</i>	26s. per week	16s. per week for wife or adult dependant; 7s. 6d. for first child.

BENEFITS (Contd.)

	Basic Rate	Extra Allowances and Conditions
Maternity :		
Grant	£4	
Benefit	36s. per week for 13 weeks	For gainfully occupied woman.
Attendance Allowance	20s. per week for 4 weeks	For housewife
Widowhood :		
Allowance	36s. per week for 13 weeks	7s. 6d. for first child
Mother's Allowance Pension	26s. per week	Pension normally payable after age 50 (40 if follows widowed mother's allowance)
Orphanhood : Guardian's Allowance	12s. per week	For each child
Death Grant	£20 (£6-£15 for child according to age)	
Industrial Injury : Benefit or Pension	45s. per week	16s. per week for wife or adult dependant. 7s. 6d. per week for first child
(Total Disablement :	proportionate benefits for	partial disablement)
National Assistance :		
For Householder	24s. per week	Plus allowance for rent. 16s. for wife. Children's allowances according to age. 15s. supplement for blind or tuberculous person.
For Other Adult	20s. per week	

CONTRIBUTIONS (weekly)

	Employed Person	Employer	Self-Employed Person	Non-Employed Person
Men over 18	4s. 11d.	4s. 2d.	6s. 2d.	4s. 8d.
Women over 18	3s. 10d.	3s. 10d.	5s. 1d.	3s. 8d.
Boys under 18	2s. 10½d.	2s. 5½d.	3s. 7d.	2s. 9d.
Girls under 18	2s. 4d.	1s. 11d.	3s. 1d.	2s. 3d.

Note : Contributions for the National Health Service scheme (which came into operation on 5th July, 1948) as well as to all forms of National Insurance (including Industrial Injuries) are included in these payments. Men over 70 and women over 65 do not pay these contributions (unless they are still employed), and remission of contributions is provided during unemployment and sickness and for young people still in full-time education and for persons with total incomes of less than £2 a week.

The scheme under the *National Insurance Act, 1946* (see below) came into full operation on 5th July, 1948. After the passing of the Act (1st August, 1946) the Ministry of National Insurance was engaged in two fields: (a) the enormous task of preparation for the new comprehensive and universal Insurance Scheme, and (b) the day-to-day work of the existing separate Insurance schemes. The number insured under these schemes rose from 21 millions in 1939 to 24 millions in 1947.

The Ministry has a headquarters office in London with a staff of 400-500, a central record office in Newcastle with staff of 7,000-8,500, and 12 regional offices, broadly corresponding to the old Civil Defence regions, which control a wide network of nearly 1,000 local offices where claims for benefit are made and, with certain exceptions, all benefits paid.

On 5th July, 1949, the scheme was one year old. During the year local offices had dealt with 10 million claims involving 40 million separate payments. The central record office holds the individual records of past and present insurance and has answered an average of nearly 40,000 inquiries from local offices each day. At this and other central offices, 7½ million pensions and allowances are maintained in payment and 800,000 new claims were settled during the year. Over 16,000 of the staff have had training courses in the practical details of the scheme, management and supervision or the technique of interviewing the public.

Seven million new claims to sickness benefit have been made in the first year, an average of 140,000 a week, about one-half of which included claims for dependants. Although the seasonal increase in the sickness rate last winter was perhaps no higher than usual, it persisted longer and localised attacks of influenza gave rise to serious pressure on local National Insurance offices in some areas. New claims rose to a peak of 220,000 during the week ended 22nd February; it is now at the rate of 100,000 a week. The maximum number of people sick was about 1,100,000; by the end of June the number had dropped to about 800,000.

Some 800,000 claims to maternity benefit were made during the first year. The time limits for claiming were substantially eased recently in the light of experience of the working of the scheme.

At present 4,150,000 men over 65 and women over 60 are receiving National Insurance retirement or old age pensions. Of these 55,000 men are receiving increases of 16s. a week for a dependent wife under the age of 60, and 9,000 retirement pensioners are receiving increases of 7s. 6d. a week for a dependent child. About two-thirds of all insured men reaching 65 and about one-half of all insured women reaching the age of 60 since 5th July, 1948, continue in regular employment and can then qualify for the increments for postponed retirement that will be added to their retirement pensions when they do retire and claim the pension. These increments are in effect 1s. (2s. for married couples) for every six months of postponed retirement and can increase the joint pension of a man with a wife over 60 by 20s. to 62s. a week. Claims to retirement pension are at the rate of 8,000 a week.

460,000 widows under 60 are receiving widowhood benefits, claims to which reach nearly 2,000 a week.

In addition to the widows' benefits, guardians' allowances or orphans' pensions are also being paid to 10,000 children.

(b) National Insurance Act, 1946

The *National Insurance Act, 1946*, is part of the vast comprehensive programme of national insurance which includes the *Family Allowance Act, 1945*, and the *National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Act, 1946*. In moving the Second Reading of the Bill in the House of Lords, the Chancellor, Lord Jowitt, said: "... Mr. Joseph Chamberlain perhaps started the work with his original Workmen's Compensation Act. There followed Mr. Asquith with the Old Age Pensions Act; Mr. Lloyd George with his great National Insurance Act of 1911; Mr. Neville Chamberlain with his Widows', Orphans and Old Age Contributory Pensions Act of 1925. Then came the Unemployment Insurance Act of 1934 which first set up the Assistance Board.... Mr. Arthur Greenwood then Minister without Portfolio in the Coalition Government... appointed Sir William Beveridge to start work which led to his great Report published... in November, 1942.... The Coalition... finally produced the White Paper of September, 1944. A month or so later the Ministry of National Insurance was established, and I became the first Minister of National Insurance.... I concentrated at once on the National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Bill... The (new) Minister (Mr. James Griffiths) was able to introduce the National Insurance Bill... in January of this year...."

The Act provides for a unified and comprehensive scheme of National Insurance which will eventually cover practically everyone in Great Britain. It provides, broadly speaking, that there shall be three classes of insured persons:

- (a) *Employed Persons*, i.e., those who work under a contract of service;
- (b) *Self-employed Persons*, i.e., those who are gainfully occupied, but not under contract of service; and
- (c) *Non-employed Persons*, those who are not gainfully occupied.

All three classes will contribute for the following kinds of benefits:—

Maternity Benefits;
Widows' Benefits;
Guardians' Allowance (for orphans);
Retirement Pension;
Death Grant.

In addition employed persons can qualify for sickness and unemployment benefit, and self-employed persons for sickness benefit.

Contribution rates will depend on the class into which the insured person falls. Employers will contribute, so will the Exchequer. The principle "one card, one stamp, all benefits" is put into practice.

MAIN CONTRIBUTION RATES

	Employed Person	Employer of Employed Persons	Self-employed Person	Non-employed Person
Men over 18	4s. 7d.	3s. 10d.	6s. 2d.	4s. 8d.
Women over 18	3s. 7d.	3s. 0d.	5s. 1d.	3s. 8d.
Boys under 18	2s. 8d.	2s. 3d.	3s. 7d.	2s. 9d.
Girls under 18	2s. 2d.	1s. 9d.	3s. 1d.	2s. 3d.

These rates exclude contributions under the industrial injuries insurance but include contributions to the new health service. Men aged 70 and over and women aged 65 and over will pay no contributions. Men aged 65 to 70 and women aged 60 to 65 will pay contributions only if they are working and have not retired from regular

employment. Exceptions from liability to contribute are also provided for the unemployed, the sick, for those still in full-time education, and for persons with total incomes under £104 a year.

BENEFITS

Sickness and Unemployment

Man or single woman over 18 ..	26s. a week.
Married woman over 18 ..	20s. unemployment, 16s. sickness, 26s if separated from her husband.
Boy or girl under 18	15s. a week.

During the same spell of absence from work sickness benefit, broadly, will be without limitation of period if 156 contributions have been paid, and unemployment benefit will last 180 days, with additions assessed on record.

Maternity. Grant of £4 for all women, and maternity allowance of 36s a week for 13 weeks (starting about six weeks before expected confinement) for women normally following a gainful occupation, and attendance allowance—£1 a week for four weeks—for other women.

Widows. Widow's allowance of 36s. a week for first 13 weeks of widowhood, and then, if there is a child, a widowed mother's allowance of 33s 6d., i.e., 26s. for the mother and 7s. 6d. for the child; or, if she has reached the age of 50, a widow's pension of 26s. a week. In addition, a widow's pension is paid to a widow who has reached the age of 40 when her widowed mother's allowance ceases, and to a widow who is incapable of self-support.

Guardian's Allowance. This is 12s. a week for a person who has in his family a child whose parents are dead.

Retirement Pensions. The rates are 26s for a single person and 42s for a married couple. They replace the existing contributory old age pension, but will be payable only on retirement from regular work. For this purpose all men aged 70 and over and all women aged 65 and over will be treated as having retired. Men who work after the age of 65 and women who work after the age of 60 will have their pensions increased by 2s. a week for every year they work after the pension age.

Death Grant is paid for expenses connected with the death of an insured person or his wife, child or widow. The grant, with certain exceptions, will be:—

Adult	£20
Child aged 6-17 ..	£15
Child aged 3-5 ..	£10
Child under 3 ..	£6

The Bill received the Royal Assent on 1st August, 1946, and came into full operation on 5th July, 1948. The Act left much to be dealt with by Regulations, and a National Insurance Advisory Committee was appointed on 28th October, 1947, to consider and report on the regulations made under the Act. The more important regulations require an affirmative resolution of both Houses of Parliament.

Increases In Pensions

As from October, 1946, the Government raised the current rate of old age pensions. From that date, 855,000 men over 70 and 1,685,000 women over 65 have had their contributory old age pensions increased. In addition, 370,000 men between 65 and 70 and 400,000 women between 60 and 65 have satisfied the retirement condition and receive the increased pensions.

Besides these 3,310,000 contributory pensions, over 400,000 non-contributory pensions at the same rates are paid to men over 70 and women over 65. Supple-

mentary pensions, on proof of need to the Assistance Board, are paid to over half a million (some 525,000) old age pensioners whose needs are not met even by the higher rate of pension.

Northern Ireland. In pursuance of a policy of parity in social services the Northern Ireland Parliament has passed an Act corresponding to the comprehensive legislation noted above.

(c) Family Allowances Act, 1945

A Bill to provide Family Allowances was presented to Parliament on 15th February, 1945, and received the Royal Assent on 15th June, 1945. Its object was to provide for the payment by the Minister of National Insurance from the Exchequer of an allowance for each family at the rate of 5s. for each eligible child except the first or only child, and so to benefit the family as a whole. (A child, for this purpose, is defined as one who is under the upper limit of the compulsory school age or one over that age who is undergoing full-time instruction in school, or is an apprentice, until the 31st July after his 16th birthday.)

Example: "... Thus, if there are four children in a family aged 17, 13, 11 and 9, no account will be taken of the child aged 17, and there remain, therefore, three qualified children, for whom two allowances will be payable. When the child aged 13 leaves school, or after the 31st July following his 16th birthday (if he is then at school) the number of qualified children will be reduced to two, and only one allowance will be payable."

If the breadwinner is on benefit, i.e., out of work or sick, then under the new National Insurance scheme provision will be made for the first child. Further assistance will come in the development of school meals and milk services. In the case of a married couple living together the allowance belongs to the mother, but either the father or the mother may draw it at the post office. Reciprocal arrangements have been made with Northern Ireland and the Isle of Man.

Payment. Payment of family allowances began on 6th August, 1945. Allowances are claimed by completing and sending in to the Ministry of National Insurance a special claim form obtainable at any post office. When awarded, allowances are paid at post offices by means of books containing weekly orders; each order remains valid for a period of six months. All families living in Great Britain, whatever the nationality of the parents, may qualify for allowances, but British subjects who were born abroad and aliens are required to satisfy certain residence conditions. In all cases either the husband or the wife must be living in Great Britain. Members of the Forces and Merchant Seamen will, during their service, always be treated as though they were living in Great Britain. By 6th August, 1949, the Family Allowances Scheme had been in operation for three years. About 2,941,000 families of two or more children are receiving allowances varying between 5s. and £3 5s. a week at a total cost of £60 millions a year. During the three years the Ministry of National Insurance has received nearly 3½ million claims to Family Allowances, of which fewer than 100,000 have had to be rejected.

The 2,941,000 families receiving allowances contain children within the qualifying ages as follows:

2 children	1,850,000
3	688,000
4	247,000
5 or more children	156,000

The family drawing the largest allowance of £3 5s. a week consists of 14 children within the age limits. The number of children covered by the scheme is about 4,600,000.

In the last year over 290,000 new claims to allowances resulted in payments for over 300,000 children. In the same period the total number of allowances in payment and the number of children for whom allowances are paid increased in each case by over 100,000. Over 225,000 children, mainly new births, were added to families already drawing allowances, while 430,000 passed out of the scheme.

Northern Ireland. Under a similar Act of Northern Ireland payment of family allowances began in Ulster simultaneously with those in Great Britain. One hundred thousand families are eligible for benefit and the number of children concerned is 210,000. The annual cost is about £3 millions.

(d) National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Act, 1946

This Bill "to substitute for the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1925 to 1945, a system of insurance against personal injury caused by accidents arising out of and in the course of a person's employment, and for purposes connected therewith" was introduced on 23rd August, 1945, and read the second time on 10th October, 1945. It received the Royal Assent on 26th July, 1946. The measure is broadly based on the White Paper, Social Insurance Part II of 27th September, 1944 (Cmd. 6551), and its main object is to make compensation for industrial injuries a part of the country's social services in a scheme based on insurance against risk and not on liability for compensation. Its chief provisions are that (1) all persons employed in Great Britain under any contract of service or apprenticeship shall be insured without income limit; (2) benefits shall be related to the degree of disablement caused by the industrial accident or disease and not to loss of earning power. The degree of disablement will be assessed by Medical Boards and expressed as a percentage, the maximum being 100 per cent.

Benefits

Injury Allowance. The basic weekly rate both for injury benefit and for 100 per cent disablement pension is 45s. Injury benefit is payable during incapacity for work for a period of not more than 26 weeks from the date of the accident.

Pension is payable from the end of the 26th week if incapacity continues so long, or from the date of recovery, if there is any remaining disablement. Rates of pension for partial disablement will be proportionate to the 100 per cent, e.g., 9s. for 20 per cent, 22s. 6d. for 50 per cent, etc.

Unemployability. When a pensioner remains virtually unemployable, as a result of accident, he will receive a 20s. a week supplement to his pension.

Special Handicap Allowance. Where, as a result of his accident, a pensioner is unable, and likely to remain unable, to follow his regular occupation, and is also unable to take up suitable alternative work of an equivalent standard, he may be granted a special allowance of 11s. 3d. a week, provided this does not raise his pension above 45s.

Constant Attendance Allowance. A pensioner with a 100 per cent assessment who requires constant attendance as a result of his accident, may be granted a special allowance of up to 20s. a week, or, in exceptionally severe cases, 40s. a week.

Treatment in Hospital. If a pensioner has to go into hospital for treatment for his injury, his pension will, if not already at 100 per cent rate, be increased to that rate while the treatment lasts.

Dependants' Allowances. During the period of injury benefit, or when a pensioner is in receipt of an unemployability supplement or is undergoing approved treatment in hospital, the allowance for a wife or other adult dependant is 16s. weekly, and the

allowance for a first child, i.e., a child who would not benefit under Family Allowances, is 7s. 6d.

Pensioner who is Sick or Unemployed. A pensioner can get sickness or unemployment benefit in addition to his pension, if he satisfies the normal conditions for receipt of such benefit, but benefit will be at half-rate until he has been unemployed for 13 weeks since the date of his accident.

Children. If employed, children under school-leaving age have a right to disablement pension at half adult rate. Regulations will determine whether they are to get any injury benefit. Neither they nor their employers will pay contributions.

Death Benefit. The rate of pension for a widow is 30s. weekly, if she has a child or children, or if she is over 50 years of age, or if she is permanently incapable of self-support; and in other cases, 20s. weekly. The pension will be raised to 37s. 6d. so long as she has the care of one child of the deceased person. The pension for dependent parents is at the rate of up to 20s. weekly for one parent, or 30s. for two parents living together. In certain circumstances, a dependent relative may receive a pension (maximum 20s.) and a woman having the care of the deceased's child may receive an allowance of 20s. so long as she has the care of the child. A parent or relative not entitled to a pension may qualify for a gratuity not exceeding £52 in some cases, or £104 in others.

Contributions. Weekly contribution rates are:—

	Employer	Worker	Total
Men	4d.	4d.	8d.
Women	3d.	3d.	6d.
Boys under 18	2½d.	2½d.	5d.
Girls under 18	2d.	2d.	4d.

Local Tribunals. Independent local appeal tribunals, consisting of one representative each of employers and workers under an independent chairman, hear appeals from the insurance officers' decisions. There is a further right of appeal to a commissioner appointed by the Crown, whose decision is final.

Accident Research. There is a provision for financial assistance to be given to persons engaged on research into the causes and prevention of industrial accident and disease, and for the Minister of National Insurance to employ persons to carry out research.

Artificial Limbs. Provision is made to supply artificial limbs and other appliances to pensioners either free or at a reduced cost.

Administration. The Minister has a small headquarters staff in London, an executive headquarters staff in Newcastle-on-Tyne, and local offices in all important centres throughout the country. There is an Industrial Injuries Advisory Council to which members are nominated by representative employers' and workmen's organisations.

Finance. The cost of the benefits is estimated at £28½ millions with a further £3½ millions for administration. The Act came into full operation on 5th July, 1948.

Northern Ireland. Provision is made, as with the National Insurance Act, for complete reciprocity with Northern Ireland, when the scheme contained in a similar measure, introduced by the Northern Ireland Government, comes into operation.

All industrial accidents occurring since 5th July, 1948, have been dealt with under the Industrial Injuries Scheme. About three-quarters of a million claims have been made to industrial injuries benefits of all kinds during the first year. Some 16,000 claims are made each week for injury benefit; and claims to disablement benefit, a pension or gratuity for those still suffering a loss of faculty when fit again for work or in any case after 26 weeks, are now being received at the rate of nearly 6,000 a month.

103 medical boarding centres are examining claimants to assess the degree of their disablement and 13 medical appeal tribunals hear appeals against assessments.

The scheme also covers certain industrial diseases. In July, 1949, the list of diseases was almost the same as those scheduled under the Workmen's Compensation Acts. Since then beryllium poisoning has been added.

Just under 200 claims a month have been received for death benefit, which is paid to the widow or to certain other dependants of a man who has died as a result of an industrial accident or disease.

Law Reform (Personal Injuries) Act

An Act with the above title, designed to abolish the defence of "common employment" in actions for damages in respect of personal injuries, received Royal Assent on 30th June, 1948.

(e) National Assistance Act, 1948

This Act, which received Royal Assent 13th May, 1948, provides for the supersession of the existing poor law, and sets up a *National Assistance Board* to administer a single comprehensive service replacing outdoor relief, unemployment assistance, supplementary pensions, blind domiciliary assistance and tuberculosis treatment allowances.

It plans to improve provision for the aged by the establishment by welfare authorities of small homes for the accommodation of any old persons unable wholly to look after themselves elsewhere, whatever their means. These small homes will replace the existing institutions for the aged poor which are at present only exceptionally supplemented by small homes. An increasing number of old people's homes or hostels are now being created by voluntary effort. The Act makes provision for voluntary organisations to act, by arrangement, as agents of the welfare authorities in providing residential accommodation and welfare services of a kind for which the latter have a responsibility.

(f) The Children Act, 1948

The Children Act, which received Royal Assent 30th June, 1948, also formed part of the programme of social legislation which came into operation when the provisions of the National Assistance Act brought Poor Law to an end on 5th July, 1948. The Act provides that every local authority is to have a children's committee to deal with the care of children removed from their homes by order of the court. The committees are also to deal with child life protection, the registration of adoption societies, and the supervision of children placed by their parents in the care of others. The committees are to appoint children's officers to look after the children. Children are to be boarded out, as far as possible, in suitable private homes.

3. HEALTH

(a) Vital Statistics

(For Births, Deaths and Marriages see Appendix I.)

ENGLAND AND WALES

Year	Maternal mortality (rate per 1,000 total births)	Stillbirths (rate per 1,000 total births)	Neo-Natal ⁽¹⁾ deaths (rate per 1,000 related live births)	Infant Mortality ⁽²⁾ (rate per 1,000 related live births)
1939	3.13	37.8	28.3	50.6
1940	2.68	36.1	29.6	56.8
1941	2.80	34.4	29.0	60.0
1942	2.48	33.0	27.2	50.6
1943	2.29	30.2	25.2	49.1
1944	1.93	27.7	24.3	45.4
1945	1.80	27.6	24.8	46.0
1946	1.43	27.2	24.5	42.9
1947	1.17*	24.1	22.7*	41.3*
1948	1.01*	23.2*	19.7**	34.0*

(1) Neo-natal death means death within one month of birth.

(2) Infant Mortality means deaths among infants under one year.

*Provisional.

(b) The National Health Service

The advances made in Britain's public health and medical services during the past thirty years culminated in the passing of the *National Health Service Act* in November, 1946, operative from 5th July, 1948.

The object of the Act is "to promote the establishment in England and Wales of a comprehensive service designed to secure improvement in the physical and mental health of the people of England and Wales and the prevention, diagnosis and treatment of illness; and for that purpose to provide or secure (free of charge except where any provision of the Act expressly provides for the making and recovery of charges) the effective provision of services in accordance with the provisions of the Act."

This object will be achieved by a number of far-reaching additions and alterations to the existing administrative machinery, preventive and curative services, and financial organisation.

(i) Administrative Machinery

The Minister of Health assumes *direct* responsibility for (a) the provision on a national basis of all hospital and specialist services, (b) the mental health functions from the hands of the Board of Control (except for the quasi-judicial functions designed to safeguard the liberty of the patient), (c) the conduct of research work into any matters relating to the prevention, diagnosis or treatment of illness or mental defect, (d) a Public Health Laboratory Service, and (e) a blood transfusion service. He assumes *indirect* responsibility for the organisation and maintenance of Health Centres, the establishment and maintenance of general medical services and for the management of all other services. He will be advised by the *Central Health Services Council* and *Standing Advisory Committees* which may be appointed to study various aspects of the Service.

Under the Minister, *Regional Hospital Boards*, set up on 27th June, 1947, in fourteen areas, determined as far as possible so as to secure that the hospital and specialist services could be conveniently associated with a university having a school of medicine, are generally in charge of that part of the new service reorganised on a national and regional basis. For more detailed work Hospital Management Committees have been set up to be the local managing bodies for individual hospitals, or groups of hospitals, acting as the agents of the Regional Boards.

Each Board has a membership of between 22 and 32 persons, including members appointed after consultation with hospital governing bodies, local authorities, doctors, dentists, nurses, industrialists, trade unionists and others. The Chairmen have been appointed for a term ending in March, 1950, and one-third of the other members are retiring at the end of each year, beginning March, 1949. They are eligible for reappointment, and the term of office for future members will be three years. All appointments are honorary.

The administration of the personal medical services is in the hands of Executive Councils assisted by Area Committees, e.g., the Medical Practices Committee, the Dental Estimates Board, and the Ophthalmic Services Committee. These Executive Councils have been set up in the area of every major local authority.

The organisation and management of Health Centres (when these have been established) will be carried out by the Councils of Counties and County Boroughs, or (in very exceptional cases) by Joint Committees. These Councils are henceforth to be known as the Local Health Authorities, and in addition to the Health Centres, they take charge of all the public health and medical services previously administered by local authorities (see following section).

(ii) *Preventive and Curative Services*

Hospital and Specialist Services cover consultant and hospital services of all kinds, including general and special hospitals, maternity accommodation, tuberculosis sanatoria, infectious disease units, accommodation for convalescence and medical rehabilitation, and all forms of specialised treatment. The rights and liabilities attached to these services, including their premises, property and assets, are transferred to the Minister of Health.

The organisation and management of these services is, as has been stated, the responsibility of the Regional Boards, except in the case of "teaching hospitals," i.e., those designated by the Minister of Health as providing, or able to provide in the future, facilities for undergraduate or post-graduate clinical teaching. Such hospitals are the centres of clinical teaching and technical experiment and innovation, and for this reason they are still administered by their own Boards of Governors, who are directly responsible to the Minister and act as his agents in the management of their own hospitals.

Medical and Dental Schools continue to be under the control, in London, of their own Governing Bodies and elsewhere of the Governing Bodies of the universities of which they form part.

All hospital and consultant services are available free of charge to every man, woman and child in Britain. Certain hospitals may put aside a number of "paying beds" or "paying blocks" for the use of people wishing for privacy, provided that the accommodation so set aside is not needed for non-paying patients on medical grounds.

The new Health Centres, which are to be established by the Local Health Authorities as soon as conditions permit, will provide facilities for (a) general medical and dental services, (b) the special clinical services of the Local Health Authorities, e.g., infant welfare clinics, etc., and (c) out-patient clinics for the specialist services on premises technically equipped and staffed at public cost.

The General Practitioner Services cover the medical attention given to individuals

by doctors and dentists of their own choice from among those enrolled in the new service. Doctors previously in practice were entitled to join the new service on the appointed day in the place where they were practising. Those wishing to start practice after the appointed day have to apply to a special Medical Practices Committee, so that a proper distribution of doctors throughout the country may be assured. Doctors may work either at the new Health Centres (when they have been established) or at their own surgeries, whichever is the more convenient for them. Dentists will also work at the Health Centres on a whole-time or a part-time basis, or in their own surgeries, when they will be able to claim their fees from public funds.

The Local Government Services, which had already been in existence for many years, are now unified under the control of the Councils of Counties and County Boroughs and where circumstances permit will be very considerably enlarged and modernised. Plans have been laid for extending the arrangements for maternity and child welfare; and in addition to the previous ante-natal, child welfare and health visiting schemes, the services of a family doctor are now made available to every expectant and nursing mother. This doctor may himself give his patient all the necessary care before, during and after her confinement, or he may assist her in choosing a "General Practitioner Obstetrician" from the list of those practising in her area to deputise for him in the case. Women who require institutional accommodation and the services of specialists are provided with them.

Other local authority services are likewise to be improved and every Health Authority was required to report to the Minister of Health on the steps proposed to carry out the work.

(iii) *Financial Organisation*

The new services are financed partly from the Exchequer, partly from local rates, and partly from a proportion of National Insurance contributions. (See "National Insurance.") No charge is at present made to the public except for appliances, goods or other articles outside the usual scope of the service, but a charge of up to 1s. a prescription supplied through the practitioner services may be introduced (under the *National Health Service (Amendment) Act, 1949*).

(c) *Particular Services*

The public health services which existed up to the time when the new national health service was established incorporated the sanitary provisions necessary for a civilised social life, and included a number of general and specialised services which have passed into the new service and will there be extended and developed. Among these services are :—

(i) *Maternity and Child Welfare*

As part of this service, local authorities and voluntary organisations provide *Welfare Centres* where mothers can obtain ante- and post-natal care at the hands of specially trained doctors, midwives and nurses, as well as good medical advice for themselves and their children. Children attending the centres are regularly weighed and examined by a doctor so that a record of their progress may be kept and any deviation from the normal detected at the earliest possible moment.

Facilities for dental, orthopaedic, ophthalmic and sunlight treatment are often available at the centres for children whose condition warrants it; and a certain number provide similar facilities for mothers.

Some Welfare Centres are also distribution points for the fruit juices, cod liver oil, vitamin tablets and National Dried Milk provided for expectant mothers and infants under government arrangements; and many stock proprietary brands of infant foods and other commodities for issue at reduced prices or free according to circumstances if the doctor in charge prescribes them in particular cases.

Attendance at the centres is not compulsory, but no effort is spared to make them attractive and convenient, and approximately three out of four mothers with children under one year visit them.

Maternity Care is provided either in maternity homes, or in hospitals or in the homes of the patients. In this last case, every patient may call upon the services either of a General Practitioner Obstetrician or her own family doctor, if he is willing to undertake her maternity care. The doctor carries out certain ante- and post-natal examinations and attends at the confinement if he thinks it necessary. The remainder of the ante-natal care is provided by the midwife, who visits the patient regularly before confinement and gives her what help and advice are necessary in carrying out the doctor's directions. The midwife delivers the patient (unless the doctor considers it necessary to be present) and continues in attendance for the first fourteen days after birth. In many cases, midwives work in close conjunction with the Welfare Centres as regards ante- and post-natal care.

Confinements in hospitals are reserved for the most part for mothers who are likely to need special medical attention; and priority is given where home conditions are unsuitable and for first babies. Applications for admission to hospital are made through the doctor attending the case, or, where admission is required because of unsuitable home conditions, through the Medical Officer of Health.

Health visiting is carried on by a staff of specially trained nurses who are able to give expert advice to mothers in their own homes on such matters as breast feeding, the general care of the baby, and the nurture and management of children up to five years old. They are also responsible for giving advice to the whole family on the care of the sick and the measures necessary to prevent the spread of infection.

Additional provision for the health and welfare of mothers and young children has been made by the establishment of

- Hospitals for sick and ailing children;

- Homes or Residential Nurseries for healthy babies;

- Day Nurseries where children under five years old may be left while their parents are at work, or because other home circumstances render such outside care necessary;

- Child Guidance Clinics (see p. 123);

- Home Helps Schemes,

- Ministry of Food Schemes for the provision of priority milk and eggs to expectant mothers and children under five years old (see p. 74).

All the above services are available to the unmarried mother and her child, and she is given every encouragement to make the fullest use of them.

(ii) *Socially Significant Diseases*

The measures adopted for the prevention and control of infectious disease are based on four main principles: notification, isolation, supervision of contacts, and immunisation. Advances made in the practice of immunisation against diphtheria may be illustrated by the fact that between January, 1941 (when stocks of an effective immunising agent were issued to local authorities free of charge), and December, 1948, nearly 8,000,000 children (probably about 60 per cent of the total population under fifteen years old) had been immunised against diphtheria. Both the incidence of the disease and the number of deaths attributed to it have decreased most strikingly from 50,797 cases with 2,641 deaths in 1941 to 8,034 cases with 150 deaths in 1948. In 1948, 575,000 children under five were immunised. Considerable progress has also been made in the field of investigation generally, and the *Emergency Public Health Laboratory Service* began during 1945 to transform itself into a peace-time service. A central laboratory has now been set up, and the administration of the Service handed back to the Medical Research Council. A large

number of outbreaks of infectious disease are investigated by the Service each year.

Detailed arrangements exist to deal with certain conditions and diseases which require specialised treatment both to alleviate the sufferings of the patients, and to protect the community as a whole. Such arrangements cover

Mental Disorder and Mental Deficiency ;

Tuberculosis ;

Venereal Diseases ;

and consist in the main of the provision of hospitals, treatment centres, sanatoria and clinics, where the patients can receive specialised medical treatment and suitable after-care. Considerable attention is also paid to preventive measures in the cases of venereal diseases and tuberculosis.

One of the most important recent developments in this field has been the introduction in 1943 of mass radiography as a means of early diagnosis of tuberculosis, and the number of persons so examined in England and Wales up to 31st December, 1947, was 2,019,670. As a corollary to the introduction of mass radiography a scheme for the financial assistance of persons undergoing treatment was started at the same time so that such persons and their dependants should be free from financial anxiety during the treatment period. This is now incorporated in National Assistance.

(iii) Hospitals

For historical reasons, two quite distinct and until recently unco-ordinated hospital systems grew up side by side. The *voluntary hospitals*, which included many of the oldest and most famous, started as charitable foundations for the poor and were financed by voluntary subscriptions and donations and by endowments ; in recent years patients of all classes were admitted and contributed to the cost of their treatment according to their means ; there were also other sources of income, including patients' contributory schemes. These hospitals were administered by voluntary committees and much of the medical work was done by well-known specialists without payment. Some voluntary hospitals also had private wards for wealthier patients.

The *municipal hospitals*, on the other hand, grew out of the old Public Assistance Hospitals, which were transferred to County and County Borough Councils in 1929. They contained some two-thirds of the total available beds and were paid for out of State grants and local rates, though the local authority was bound by law to recover part of the cost from the patients themselves except in certain circumstances. Most of their medical staff were salaried, though increasing use was made of outside consultants and specialists.

The first attempt at integration of these hospitals was made in 1939 by the establishment of the *Emergency Hospital Scheme*. The hospital authorities remained responsible for the actual treatment of the sick and injured, whether war casualties or not, while the Ministry of Health took responsibility for organising existing facilities on a nation-wide scale, for finding additional accommodation and equipment where necessary, and for the cost of treatment of air-raid casualties, service sick and wounded, and other special classes.

Under the *National Health Service Act*, practically all the hospitals, voluntary, municipal, and emergency, are taken over by the Minister of Health and run as a single integrated service. The medical staff of the hospital service are either full-time, in receipt of a salary, or part-time, usually paid on a sessional basis in which case they remain free to accept private patients.

(iv) Other Services

1. Rehabilitation

Considerable changes and developments have taken place in methods of treatment during the past eight years. Passive physiotherapy, including heat, massage and

electrotherapy, is now supplemented by other and more positive aids based upon active movements by the patients themselves, e.g., gymnastic exercises, remedial games, and occupational therapy. Mental stimulus is provided by lectures, discussions, musical entertainments and books.

The success of these methods in reconditioning sick and injured service patients and essential war workers during the war years showed the need for similar facilities as an integral part of the nation's health services.

Trained teams of rehabilitation medical officers, physiotherapists, occupational therapists, remedial gymnasts and almoners are essential. In the 300 hospitals and more in England and Wales where such teams operate and a combined rehabilitation technique has been developed residual disability is reduced or actually eliminated, absenteeism from work on physical grounds is much lessened, and the period of bed-occupancy or of attendance at a hospital out-patient department correspondingly shortened. Recent application of the principle to the treatment of the chronic sick has shown that a substantial number of cases can be rendered ambulant and fit to return home or to live in hostels. The Regional Hospital Boards are reviewing the future medical and surgical requirements of the Regions including provision for medical rehabilitation. Rehabilitation departments are established at all main hospital centres and steps are being taken to secure liaison with the vocational training and resettlement service of the Ministry of Labour and National Service by means of Medical Interviewing Committees at these hospitals. Progress is hampered by lack of accommodation and shortage of trained staff.

2. Blood Transfusion

This service, started as a war-time measure, has now become the National Blood Transfusion Service organised by the Ministry of Health in twelve regions centred on university towns. Stored blood, dried plasma and transfusion apparatus are supplied to all hospitals who need it. In addition, special investigations, particularly those involving the Rh. factor, are undertaken. The service is at present developing its policy of Rh. testing all its ante-natal patients so that the correct treatment can be given to infants with haemolytic disease of the new-born.

3. Medico-Social Work

An increasing number of hospitals have almoners' departments staffed by medico-social workers, called almoners, specially trained to apply the principles of social case work to the problems of the hospital patient. Social work in connection with psychiatric clinics and mental hospitals is carried out by another specialised type of social worker, the psychiatric social worker.

4. Home Nursing

Nursing in the home has been carried out by Queen's Nurses and local District Nursing Associations organised on a voluntary basis. The cost was met from charitable subscriptions, contributory schemes, payments from public funds, and to a small extent from patients' payments. Contributors and the necessitous were usually treated free and a small charge made to other patients. The provision of free home nursing has become a responsibility of local authorities in the new Health Service, but they may use the voluntary associations as their agents.

5. Other Voluntary Aid for the Sick and Handicapped

A number of voluntary organisations provide extensive welfare services of various kinds for a variety of sick and handicapped persons in co-operation with, or supplementary to, the provision made by central and local authorities. Many convalescent homes and permanent homes for the infirm and other specially handicapped persons are maintained by voluntary effort. Invalid children and others

needing care in their own homes are visited and supervised by voluntary organisations. Special organisations also serve the welfare of the blind, the deaf and other special classes. These voluntary agencies usually depend largely on the work, part-time or full-time, of unpaid volunteers.

6. The School Health Service

For details of this service, see under "Education : Health and Welfare of School-children."

7. The Industrial Health Services

For details of these services see under "Industrial Relations and Welfare."

4. EDUCATION

(a) The National System

(i) Structure

The system of education in England and Wales combines variety and freedom, and its most characteristic features in organisation are decentralisation of administration, the prominent part played by voluntary agencies, and the freedom of teachers from official direction on curricula and methods of teaching.

Teachers are servants of the local authorities or of the governing bodies of their schools. The relation of the central authority (the Board, or since 3rd August, 1944, the Ministry of Education) to local authorities (L.E.A.s) is based on consultation and co-operation by direct contact with the Minister and his Department and through His Majesty's Inspectors, who act as liaison officers.

Publicly maintained schools and institutions provide education falling into three main categories : primary, secondary, and further. Primary schools cover the period up to 11, including the nursery stage (2 to 5). Secondary schools of a variety of types, Grammar, Technical, and Modern, cover the ages 11 to 18, and secondary education is now available for all children of 11 and over. Further education includes a variety of provisions : technical colleges, evening institutes, adult education classes and so on. (See Ministry of Education Pamphlet, No. 2, A Guide to the Educational System of England and Wales, H.M.S.O., 1s., and, especially, Ministry of Education Pamphlet, No. 8, Further Education : The Scope and Content of its Opportunities under the Education Act, 1944, H.M.S.O., 3s. This pamphlet outlines a vast plan for the future of Further Education, envisaging three types of college : local, regional, or central, and national.)

The Education Act, 1944, greatly simplified the general structure and provided for a general levelling-up of standards, without sacrificing variety or freedom. It became law on 3rd August, 1944, and came into operation for most purposes on 1st April, 1945. Its main changes included :

The giving of effective power to the Minister of Education to secure the development of a national educational policy.

The appointment of two Central Advisory Councils, one for England and one for Wales, to advise the Minister on educational theory and practice. (The Central Advisory Council for England published its first report 30th May, 1947, under the title of School and Life, H.M.S.O., 2s. 6d., which stressed the advantage to the community of carrying the general education of all as far as possible.)

Classification of education into three successive stages ; primary, secondary, and further, to supersede previous distinction between elementary and higher education.

Reorganisation of the existing publicly maintained elementary schools to be completed so that well-designed primary schools are available for all children up to 11, and secondary schools for all children over that age.

(From April, 1945, no tuition fees have been charged in primary and secondary schools of any type maintained by local authorities.)

Compulsory part-time education is due course for young persons up to 18 in County Colleges. If they do not attend school full-time they must attend one whole day or two half-days each week for 44 days each year, or a period of 8 weeks (or two periods of 4 weeks) if more suitable. (Proposals for County Colleges are fully outlined in the Ministry of Education Pamphlet, No. 3, Youth's Opportunity, H.M.S.O. 1s.; see also Ministry of Education Pamphlet No. 8, Further Education, referred to above.)

Extension of existing facilities for securing the health of children and young people. Better and more varied education provided for handicapped children (New Regulations dealing with special educational treatment for handicapped children, including arrangements for boarding out with foster-parents, and the school medical and dental services were issued on 19th April, 1945. A residential county college is being set up for deaf young persons between 16 and 18, and a special school has been opened for children with speech defects. See generally Ministry of Education Pamphlet No. 5, Special Educational Treatment, H.M.S.O., 9d.)

Registration and inspection of independent schools to become compulsory as soon as the necessary inspecting staff is available. The school-leaving age was raised to 15 without exemptions on 1st April, 1947, with provision for later raising it to 16.

On 1st April, 1945, it became the duty of all L.E.A.s to prepare Development Plans covering the adequate provision of primary and secondary schools for all children in their areas. In March, 1947, L.E.A.s were instructed to prepare their schemes for Further Education, including their plans for County Colleges.

The following table gives figures for 1st January, 1948, showing primary and secondary schools (excluding nursery and special) maintained and assisted by L.E.A.s in England and Wales:

Schools or departments	27,990
Boys	2,743,600
Girls	2,612,751
Total pupils	5,356,351
Teachers	195,320
Average number of pupils per teacher	27.5

The provision of school buildings has been vigorously prosecuted, but owing to the fuel crisis in 1947 and the shortage of labour and equipment, this remains one of the hardest of post-war tasks. An elaborate programme of constructing pre-fabricated school buildings was put into operation.

In July, 1949, the Minister of Education said that in 4 years nearly 300,000 new school places, equivalent to about 1,000 new schools, had been provided. £36 millions of work was in hand, and he confidently expected L.E.A.s to have started work in 1949 on school buildings valued at nearly £50 millions, 70 per cent of them primary schools.

The adequate provision of text-books also remains a grave problem, because, although the supply of paper for this purpose was increased from 4th July, 1948, to 85 per cent of its pre-war consumption, the shortage of labour and lack of printing and binding facilities are still severe.

(ii) Finance

A very large proportion of the expenditure on education is met out of public funds, that is, money provided by Parliament out of taxes or by L.E.A.s out of rates. The amount of grant paid to L.E.A.s by the Ministry out of the money provided by Parliament is related to the amount of approved expenditure incurred by the L.E.A.s and is in total equal to more than half this. As from 1st April, 1945, the standard percentage of Exchequer grant payable to each authority was increased by five. The first annual grant (1833) was £20,000. The annual expendi-

- (iii) All State scholars should receive a basic sum of £30 a year, whatever the means of the parents.
- (iv) Certain allowances which may be deducted from the gross income of the parents in calculating the amount of their contribution should be increased: the allowance for dependent children other than the student should be increased from £50 to at least £100, and the maximum allowances for their educational expenses should be increased from £60 to at least £100 in the case of school fees, and from £100 to £200 in the case of expenses of university education or professional training.

Thus the Ministry can make up a student's award to cover the full cost of tuition and maintenance where the parents' net income is less than £600 a year. On incomes above this level there will be a graduated scale of contributions. If the parents' income exceeds £1,500 no supplementary payment will be made.

The award of Travelling and Industrial Scholarships, discontinued during the war, has been restored. They are open to persons employed in industry and are tenable at the Royal College of Arts for one year. Conditions will be as described above.

The Ministry also award about 30 Royal Scholarships and Studentships in Science, and about 60 Scholarships and Exhibitions in Art each year. Some 1,500 scholarships with maintenance grants are also awarded by L.E.A.s.

Numerous exhibitions and scholarships are awarded from their own funds by all the universities—notably by the colleges at Oxford and Cambridge—and also by private benefactions. Approximately 40 to 50 per cent of Great Britain's university students are receiving financial assistance from other than private sources. (See above.)

During the war over 6,000 State Bursaries in physics with radio, engineering (mechanical and electrical), chemistry, metallurgy, and also in glass technology, were awarded by the Ministry to selected boys and girls. Some 3,000 Engineering Cadetships were given to boys of 17 and 18 for training for commissioned rank in technical units of the Services.

(b) Health and Welfare of School Children

(i) School Health Service

For some 40 years the principle has been accepted that the State has a special responsibility as regards the health of school children. The 1944 Act provides for the widest possible advance in this field, and the School Health Service is closely co-ordinated with the proposed National Health Service, which came into operation 5th July, 1948. Under the 1944 Act, the work of regular medical inspection and provision of treatment, undertaken by L.E.A.s through their medical and nursing staff, is extended to cover all children in primary and secondary schools maintained by L.E.A.s and also, when they are established, attending County Colleges. Treatment will be both compulsory and free.

The 1944 Act accordingly requires the Local Education Authority to ascertain all children who need special educational treatment, including what are known as "maladjusted" children, and to provide special educational treatment in ordinary schools for those less severely and in special schools for those more severely handicapped. More special schools are to be provided and parents may ask for the examination of any child over two years with a view to its being given such special education as it may need. The compulsory age of attendance for all handicapped children needing education in special schools is standardised at 5 to 16. (See Ministry of Education Pamphlet No. 5.)

In June, 1947, plans were announced for the setting up of a residential college near Sheffield to meet the needs of some 400 deaf young persons (aged 14-16) every year. They will attend two-month courses, 80 at a time. On 28th June, 1947, the first school specially catering for children with speech defects was opened at Moor House,

Hurst Green, Surrey. Great efforts have been made to relieve the plight of children suffering from spastic paralysis through the formation of a British Council for the Welfare of Spastics, which undertakes research, investigation, and the spread of information.

A gradual reorganisation of special schools for the blind and partially sighted, and for the deaf and partially deaf, took place. During 1947 and 1948 as many as 43 new day and boarding special schools were opened with accommodation for 2,515 handicapped children, a greater rate of progress than in any pre-war period. The number of pupils in special schools rose by over 3,000 to over 43,000. In the two years, 21 new boarding homes were opened, with accommodation for 527 handicapped children attending ordinary schools.

(ii) Meals and Milk

Since 1906 L.E.A.s have been able to provide milk and meals for pupils of elementary schools who are unable, owing to lack of food, to take full advantage of the education provided. Since 1939 the School Meals Service has been greatly expanded, and it is now the Government's policy that, as soon as is practicable, school dinners and milk should be provided free at all schools maintained by L.E.A.s for all children. (Until school canteens are available for the majority of children, a charge, usually of about 5d. a meal, subject to total or part remission, is made.) In 1938 the average daily number of dinners supplied was 210,000.

Under the 1944 Act, the provision of milk, like that of meals, is converted from a power into a duty of L.E.A.s. School milk became free of charge in all grant-aided primary and secondary schools, as from August, 1946. In June, 1946, the number of children taking milk in schools had been 3,370,000; in June, 1947, when it was free, the number was nearly 4,300,000. 94 per cent of all given in schools is either heat-treated or tuberculin-tested.

The following figures show the expansion of meals and milk services during the years 1944-47:

NUMBER OF PUPILS HAVING MEALS AND MILK ON A NORMAL DAY IN
GRANT-AIDED PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

	MEALS				MILK			
	Din- ners (000s)	Break- fasts and Teas (000s)	Total (000s)	Number of pupils having dinner as % of number present	Number at ½d. for ½ pint rate (000s)	Number having milk free (000s)	Total number having milk (000s)	Number of pupils having milk as % of number present
1944 Feb.	1,495	20	1,515	32.8	3,114	314	3,428	76.3
1945 Feb.	1,650	17	1,667	36.3	2,934	331	3,265	73.0
1946 Feb.	1,898	21	1,919	41.6	2,932	337	3,269	71.5
Oct.	2,252	26	2,278	47.0	—	4,438	4,438	92.5
1947 Feb.*	2,173	22	2,195	49.7	—	3,817	3,817	87.0
June	2,322	25	2,347	48.5	—	4,267	4,267	89.0

*The number of children at school was abnormally low owing to bad weather.

In the year October, 1947–October, 1948, the number of canteens increased by over 1,000 and that of schools served by a little less. Only 2,622 out of some 28,500 schools remained unserved by a canteen in October, 1948. The number of pupils benefiting rose from 2½ million in October, 1947, to nearly 2,750,000 in October, 1948.

During 1948 milk consumption under the Milk in Schools Scheme followed broadly the rise in the number of pupils, remaining steady at from 88 to 88·7 per cent. In October, 1948, 2,720,000 day pupils had dinners and 4,592,000 took milk. Progress was made in securing supplies of heat-treated or tuberculin-tested milk and between June, 1947, and June, 1948, the proportion of milk of these types supplied to schools advanced from 94·3 per cent to 97·5 per cent.

(iii) *Nursery Schools*

Under the 1944 Act, greater facilities for the education of children below compulsory school age are called for in the provision of nursery schools or nursery classes attached to primary schools. Through nursery schools, nursery classes attached to primary schools, and other agencies, provision during war time was made for nearly 250,000 children under five. Courses at special colleges are provided for training of nursery teachers. Plans for adapting to post-war needs the war-time services for the day-time care of children under five are to be worked out locally. From 31st March, 1946, such war-time nurseries as became nursery schools or nursery classes were given the normal grant from the Ministry of Education. In January, 1948, the number of nursery schools maintained by L.E.A.s was 398; the number of registered pupils was 20,343. There were also 23 grant-aided nursery schools under voluntary management, with 1,009 pupils.

(iv) *Child Guidance Clinics*

The organised development of Child Guidance in Britain dates from 1927. In 1938 there were 43 clinics in England and Wales and 11 in Scotland for the psychiatric treatment of nervous, difficult and retarded children. War-time evacuation provided valuable experience in the treatment of "difficult" children. Twenty-six of the clinics were wholly or partly maintained by local authorities. Two hundred and fifteen hostels for children who were hard to place in private billets were established in England and Wales. The results in these hostels were shown in the report of a survey made by the Ministry of Health in 1943 (*Hostels for Difficult Children*, H.M.S.O., 1944. 6d.).

In April, 1949, there were 126 child guidance clinics, including 2 in Scotland. There were also 167 hospital out-patient clinics, dealing with children as well as adults. Thus there are about 300 clinics, staffed by psychiatrists, treating mal-adjusted children.

(c) *Training of Teachers*

(i) *Supply.* The supply of teachers is an important factor in the rate of educational progress, and vigorous measures are continually being taken to keep it at a high level. When the full effect of the raising of the school-leaving age is felt, 13,000 teachers will be required on that ground alone, but there were by March, 1948, some 25,000 more teachers in the schools than there were at the end of the war, and they have been mainly absorbed in reducing the size of classes. The figures on 1st January, 1948, were: 68,000 men and 128,000 women—196,000 in all. In spite of these improvements, many more women teachers, especially of infants, are required, and a campaign to recruit 6,000 young women by the end of the year was announced in June, 1948, by the Minister of Education, who said that 47,500 more qualified teachers would be required by 1953. In the normal training colleges and university departments, the figure for students in training in the year 1948–49 was nearly 20,000, compared with under 12,000 before the war. Besides the normal training institu-

tions—training colleges and university training departments—there was a vigorously working scheme, now coming to an end, of special "emergency" training colleges for men and women from the forces or other forms of national service who wish to become teachers. It is likely to cost nearly £20,000,000 and to contribute some 35,000 men and women to the profession.

The emergency training colleges provide an intensive course of training lasting for one year, followed by two years' probation. Courses are included preparing students for work in nursery schools and in domestic subjects. Teachers trained in this way are regarded as fully qualified teachers. Out of 100,000 applications from the Forces to become teachers, 40,000 were accepted. By February, 1948, there were 52 emergency training centres and three technical ones, and the output in 1947 was 10,500 from 2-year courses and 11,600 from 1-year courses.

The Ministry of Education, the Universities, L.E.A.s and other bodies provide a variety of short courses for practising teachers of all kinds, including teachers in technical and commercial schools.

(ii) *National System of Training*

Area organisations have been set up to secure a closer relationship between the universities, training colleges and L.E.A.s, and these three partners will co-operate to establish an educational centre in each area to serve as a focus of interest and activity, not only for students in training and the staffs responsible for them but also practising teachers in all types of institutions in the area and for the authorities themselves. (The arrangements are being made in accordance with the recommendations of the McNair Committee. See the Report: Supply, Recruitment and Training of Teachers and Youth Leaders, H.M.S.O., 2s.)

(iii) *Interchange Schemes*

The Interchange of Teachers Scheme is getting back into its stride again. Just before the war, the number of official exchanges reached a peak figure. Under arrangements made by the Interchange Committee of the English-speaking Union, in co-operation with the Ministry of Education, 125 teachers will be exchanged with the U.S.A. in the school year beginning September, 1949. It is hoped to increase the number of exchanges to 200 for the 1950-51 period. Since the end of the war the committee have arranged exchanges between 824 British and American teachers in all types of schools and colleges.

There has been a big increase in 1949 in the number of teachers going to the Dominions under the interchange of teachers scheme arranged by the League of the Empire in conjunction with the Ministry of Education. Under this scheme teachers interchange posts for one year. The total number of interchanges arranged for 1949 is 141 against 92 last year, 81 in 1947 and 20 in 1946. Figures for individual countries for this year and last are as follows:

						1949	1948
Canada	57	42
Australia	41	23
South Africa	27	18
New Zealand	10	9
Rhodesia	6	Nil

In co-operation with the French and Austrian Ministries of Education, ten senior modern language teachers have been exchanged in 1949, and a number of teachers of general subjects have been exchanged with Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and the Netherlands during 1948-49. In that school year over 500 French assistants were appointed to schools in England and Wales and 186 assistants served in schools in France. Twenty-five Swiss, 8 Austrian and 8 German assistants served in England and Wales.

Early in 1948 the Ministry of Education announced the establishment of a Central Bureau for Educational Visits and Exchanges which will co-ordinate the activities of the organisations in this and other countries which are concerned with arranging educational visits.

(d) Broadcasting to Schools

In the 25 years of its growth school broadcasting has become one of the cardinal factors in education. Before the war there were 11,000 registered listening schools. At the end of the Summer Term, 1949, the number had risen to nearly 19,000. During the school year beginning September, 1949, there will be over 1,800 broadcasts, or 300 more programmes than previously. There will be 55 transmissions a week—56 every fourth week—as against 47 in 1948-9.

Outside specialists with particular gifts or experience, together with skilled script-writers, do some of the work, and there is a widely qualified staff within the Corporation; educationists, drama producers, a repertory company of players, and specialist teachers in history, music, science, and so on. There is a wide range of broadcasts on appropriate subjects to suit all ages. There is constant experiment and new ground is continually being broken. Pupils' pamphlets, discontinued in war time, have reappeared.

In 1947 the Central Council and the Scottish Council, which had guided the B.B.C.'s educational policy since 1929, were superseded by three new bodies. *The School Broadcasting Council for the United Kingdom* covers broadcasting to the U.K. as a whole, while two contributory Councils, one for Scotland and one for Wales, cover the series relating particularly to those countries. Each Council is supported by Programme Committees to whom are delegated programmes aimed at children of a particular age.

The staff of the School Broadcasting Council has been increased to provide a more effective contact with schools, training colleges, and education authorities, with a view to the best use of radio as a supplement to school-work.

(e) Adult Education

Adult education especially shows the national characteristics of variety and freedom. A large part of it is vocational in character, but there is also a substantial measure of general education.

Much of it is provided by L.E.A.s in the form of technical, commercial and art colleges, and in evening institutes. The London County Council alone caters for 150,000 students taking some 300 subjects in 150 institutes. These institutes divide the students into classes of about 20 students each, and a great effort is made to attract as many students as possible.

Important provision is also made by voluntary bodies, such as the British Institute of Adult Education and the Workers' Educational Association. In 1947-8 the latter catered for 103,757 students in 5,767 classes.

The universities also cater for a large number of students, by means of summer schools, and (through extra-mural organisations) by means of courses complementary to those of the L.E.A.s and voluntary bodies. For all these activities provision is made for direct grant from the Ministry of Education to the appropriate responsible body.

The five original residential colleges, Ruskin, Oxford; Catholic Workers', Oxford, founded in 1921; Fircroft, Bournville, founded 1909; Hillcroft, Surrey, founded 1920; and Coleg Harlech, founded 1927, were back to full strength in 1947-8. In all, 227 students attended one-year courses at the five colleges. The Ministry's grants towards the work of the colleges amounted to £14,800.

Good work continued to be done in 1947-8 in the newer residential colleges, of which there were at the end of 1948 seventeen, including Urchfont Manor and

Wedgwood Memorial College. In these colleges experimental short courses lasting a week-end, a week or a period of weeks were provided.

(f) Universities

The Ministry of Education has no jurisdiction over the universities, and its relations with them are concerned mainly with the training of teachers, the provision of adult education, and the award of State Scholarships and Bursaries.

There are 13 degree-giving self-governing universities in England and Wales. Oxford and Cambridge, each with a number of colleges, are very old foundations and are residential. The remainder (including Birmingham, Bristol, Leeds, Nottingham, Manchester, Liverpool, and Sheffield), three of which—London, Durham and Wales—also comprise groups of largely autonomous colleges, are mainly non-residential. The total number of full-time students before the war (1938-9) was 50,246 (38,557 men, 11,689 women). Comparable figures for the autumn term, 1947, are 76,764 (57,520 men, 19,244 women). Of these Oxford accounts for 7,500 (6,375 men, 1,125 women); Cambridge, 6,943 (6,326 men, 617 women); and London 15,789 (10,918 men, 4,871 women). Scotland accounts for 15,795 (11,576 men, 4,219 women), and Wales 4,654 (3,440 men, 1,214 women). Detailed figures for 1948 are not available, but the total figure is about 83,000.

University degree courses generally extend over three or four years, though in medicine five or six years are required. All the universities provide for post-graduate work and research.

The universities, though self-governing institutions, receive aid from the State, in the form of direct grants from the Treasury made on the advice of the University Grants Committee, composed mainly of representatives of the universities themselves. The then Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr. Dalton, stated on 10th March, 1947: "Before the war Exchequer grants to the Universities were settled for a period of five years. I propose to resume this practice so that universities may plan development with knowledge of the resources they may expect . . . as their need will be on a rising scale, I propose that Parliament should be asked to provide recurrent grants rising from £9,000,000 for 1947-8 to £9,970,000 for 1948-9, and then by annual increments of £650,000 to £11,920,000 for 1951-2. . . . The recurrent grants for the present academic year will amount to between £6 and £7 millions. These figures exclude the grants of £500,000 now made to teaching hospitals. . . . The University Grants Committee estimate that the universities' programme of development will necessitate during the five-year period non-recurrent grants amounting to £50 millions; £40 millions for new buildings and £10 millions for acquiring sites, existing buildings and new equipment. I accept this estimate and will do my best to meet it." It was stated on 20th February, 1948, that the grant for 1947-8 would be over £11,000,000, including £2,000,000 for non-recurrent grant.

The University Grants Committee on 1st December, 1948, published a report on university development from 1935 to 1947 (H.M.S.O., 2s) in which it was stated that the dominating task confronting the universities was that of maintaining and ultimately of improving the quality of university education, notwithstanding an unparalleled pressure of numbers.

For the year beginning October, 1946, preference in entry of students to the universities was given to men who had served in the Armed Forces and others who had been engaged for an equivalent period in important civilian work. In 1948 there were about 30,000 such students in the Universities.

(g) The Public Schools

Outside the national system is that characteristic English institution the Public School, usually an independent secondary boarding school. Many of the public schools go back to the sixteenth century; Winchester (1382) and Eton (1440) are

was a state responsibility as much as was the provision of education in school. This view had received partial recognition in the *Education Acts* of 1918 and 1921, the *Physical Training and Recreation Act* of 1937 and in the Board of Education's circular No. 1486, "*The Service of Youth*," issued in November, 1939.

The act compelled all Local Education Authorities to provide sufficient out-of-school activities for adolescents either under their own auspices or by financing the work of the voluntary youth organisations, the pioneers in this field, whose work previously had been greatly hampered by insufficient funds. In addition to this local financing, the Ministry of Education makes direct grants for Youth Service. These are estimated to total £330,000 in the year 1949-50.

The local administrative machinery works on a threefold basis—first, there are the county and county borough youth committees which are normally part of the further education framework on which the local youth organisations are represented; secondly, the district youth committees through which the staffs of the L.E.A.s largely operate, and finally the youth councils, bodies representing the boy and girl members of youth units.

While the greater part of the work for youth is left to the youth organisations themselves, since they can provide a multiplicity of activities which have been proved both acceptable to and essential for adolescents, L.E.A.s help by grants towards the provision of premises, equipment, leaders and instructors, and most of them have appointed one or more youth organisers.

(b) Voluntary Organisations

The 22 leading voluntary youth organisations are associated together as members of the *Standing Conference of National Voluntary Youth Organisations* which was originally founded in 1936 as the Standing Conference of National Juvenile Organisations. This conference is a consultative body which meets to discuss matters of common interest, and to consider means for strengthening the voluntary principle in youth work. It is also the main co-ordinating body for voluntary youth activity in the country. The Youth Departments of the following: the British Council of Churches, the Church of England, the Jewish, Methodist and Roman Catholic Churches, and T. H. attend the conference as observers as do representatives of the Pre-Service Organisations. In addition there are, in 1949, 35 local Standing Conferences in the counties and county boroughs of England. Wales and Scotland have their own Standing Conferences.

The following 22 organisations are members of the conference: Boys' Brigade, Boy Scouts Association, British Red Cross Society (Youth Department), Catholic Young Men's Society of Great Britain, Church Lads' Brigade, Co-operative Youth Movement, Girl Guides Association, Girls' Friendly Society, Girls' Guildry, Girls' Life Brigade, Methodist Association of Youth Clubs, National Association of Boys' Clubs, National Association of Girls' Clubs and Mixed Clubs, National Association of Training Corps for Girls, National Federation of Young Farmers' Clubs, St. John Ambulance Brigade Cadets, Salvation Army (Youth Department), Welsh League of Youth, Young Christian Workers, Young Men's Christian Association and Young Women's Christian Association of Great Britain, the Grail.

All the National Voluntary Youth Organisations aim at training their members, in successive age-groups, to play an effective part in the religious, cultural, social and political life of an educated democracy.

Among the largest and most well known of youth organisations are the *Boy Scouts* and *Girl Guides*. Founded in 1903, the Boy Scouts have a present-day United Kingdom membership of over 400,000 boys under 18, and the Girl Guides membership is nearly 400,000 of girls under 20. World membership figures of Boy Scouts alone are in the region of 3,000,000. Both organisations aim at developing good citizenship by forming character, training in habits of observation,

obedience and self-reliance, loyalty and thoughtfulness for others ; teaching services useful to the public and handicrafts useful to members, and promoting their physical, mental and spiritual development.

The *National Federation of Young Farmers' Clubs*, the only youth organisation directly concerned with the land, was founded in 1932. There are over 1,580 clubs in the United Kingdom with a membership of over 75,000 between the ages of 10 and 25. Their aim is to interest town and country children in rural matters, not only in farming, but in thatching, carpentry, etc. Each club aims to provide the instructional, recreational and social needs of the youth of the community it serves.

The *Young Men's Christian Association*, which was founded in 1844, was the earliest of these organisations. With a membership of over 80,000 it is a layman's movement, interdenominational, auxiliary to the churches and democratic in outlook. Its aim is to help young men and boys in the development of Christian character. The method of training is a fourfold programme of religious, educational, social and physical activities, generally conducted in club buildings with facilities for outdoor recreation.

The *National Association of Boys' Clubs* and the *National Association of Girls' Clubs and Mixed Clubs* are two of the biggest organisations based on a non-sectarian foundation. With memberships of over 200,000 and 150,000 respectively, the Clubs exist to provide cheerful, friendly recreation and education for young people. The members themselves run the clubs on democratic lines, although each club has a grown-up leader. Activities include physical training, dramatics, music, crafts, cookery, debates, dancing, etc.

The *National Association of Training Corps for Girls*, founded in 1942, though not an official Pre-Service Organisation does provide a general training for service for girls aged 14-18. Composed of the Girls' Training Corps, the Women's Junior Air Corps and the Girls' Naval Training Corps, the total membership is in the region of 20,000.

The organisation which has shown a most remarkable rate of growth in recent years is the *Youth Hostels Association*. Founded in 1930, membership has risen from 6,439 to over 249,000 in 1949, and the number of hostels the Association has in the United Kingdom is now 407. For the cost of 1s. 6d. a night and a small annual subscription, the Association provides simple accommodation in hostels, which range from farmhouses, water mills and old mansions to modern specially designed hostels, for people of limited means on their travels so that they may be helped to a greater knowledge, love and care of the countryside.

Political Party Organisations : The four major political parties all have national youth organisations, whose aim is to instruct and educate their members in their own particular political doctrine and to train them to take an active part in party life when adult. Separate membership figures are : Conservative, 153,000 ; Liberal, 10,000 ; and Communist, 4,000. The Labour Party League of Youth has over 600 branches.

(c) Pre-Service Training

The *Air Training Corps* (founded 1941), the *Army Cadet Force* (Founded 1859) and the *Sea Cadet Corps* (founded 1865) for boys are in a different position from the rest of the voluntary organisations in that they are closely related financially and administratively to their respective ministries.

Peace-time objects of the corps are to promote and encourage among young men a practical interest in the services and to fit them to serve their country, to provide training which will be useful both in the services and in civil life, to foster the spirit of adventure and develop the qualities of mind and body which go to the making of a leader and good citizen. Present-day (1949) memberships are approximately :

Air Training Corps, 47,000 ; Sea Cadet Corps, 22,000 ; and Army Cadet Force 90,000.

6. HOUSING

At the end of the war in Europe, during which house-building practically ceased, while enemy action damaged or destroyed about one house in three, Britain was faced with an immediate need for some 1½ million new houses. The first 750,000, it was estimated, would give a separate home to every family who needed one, the rest would replace the worst of the sub-standard housing. The first target was reached in the autumn of 1948, but it was then seen that 750,000 new houses would not meet even this first need.

Every means of rehousing has been used—in addition to permanent houses built by traditional methods, a programme of 157,000 temporary prefabricated houses has been completed and many new types of non-traditional permanent houses, developed with the aid of the Government, are going up. Repair or conversion of old houses, and temporary requisitioning of empty properties, supplement new building.

Scarcity of skilled men and materials have been the two major problems. In 1949 a limiting factor in the housing programme is the amount of softwood timber that can be imported. The limits are set on the one hand by the amount which other countries are able to send to us and on the other hand by what Britain can afford to spend. There has been a sharp contraction compared with the years before the war in supplies from Europe and Russia, while imports from North America are a charge on Britain's dollar resources.

Much research has been, and is being, done on design, construction and equipment. In spite of the shortage, standards of accommodation in permanent houses built by local authorities are not merely maintained but improved.

The Government grants new and larger housing subsidies and has organised the building and allocation of houses on a system designed to serve first those families least adequately housed and those workers, mainly in agriculture or mining, who have the most important part to play in the nation's productive effort. The policy is to concentrate on building modest houses to let and to entrust their building for the most part to local authorities. Private building is allowed only under licence and has not been allowed at any time to exceed a proportion of one house to four local authority houses.

(a) Administration in England and Wales

The *Ministry of Health* is the Government Department primarily responsible in England and Wales for formulating housing policy, for housing standards, and for the general supervision of the housing programme. Since 1939 ministerial responsibility for housing has been extended to certain other Departments. The *Ministry of Works* and the *Ministry of Supply* act as production authorities for building materials and equipment. The *Ministry of Works* is responsible in addition for general building research, for relations with the building industry, for the programming of building resources and for the operation of the licensing system, for which it uses the local authorities as its agents. The *Ministry of Town and Country Planning* is responsible for the supervision of local planning authorities, who give planning approval to housing proposals. The authorities also advise on the choice of housing sites, the layout of housing estates and all general questions affecting the use of land, and the planned distribution of communities. The *Ministry of Agriculture* is responsible for advising whether a piece of land ought to be retained for agriculture or to be alienated to housing. The *Board of Trade* is the distribution authority for timber and the *Ministry of Labour and National Service* regulates the supply of

labour to the building industry and its ancillary trades. The *War Damage Commission* supervises payments for repair of war damage.

Close liaison at all levels, in the Regions as well as at Headquarters, is maintained between the various Government Departments concerned with housing. The Ministry of Health maintains, at Regional Offices, Principal Housing Officers responsible for day-to-day liaison with local authorities on all matters connected with their housing programmes. These Officers have full authority to deal with all normal approvals, authorisations, etc., and need refer to headquarters only matters of special difficulty or points of major policy.

Housing Powers and Duties of Local Authorities : While responsibility for housing policy and for the general execution of the housing programme rests with the Minister of Health, local authorities have executive responsibility for housing in their areas as well as being responsible to the Ministry of Works for the local operation of the licensing system. These local authorities are the Councils of Counties, of County Boroughs, and, in London, Metropolitan Boroughs, of Urban Districts or of Rural Districts. The housing powers of County Councils, however, are very restricted except those of the London County Council, which is by far the biggest housing authority in Britain.

The housing functions of these authorities are to ensure as far as possible that (a) the housing requirements of their areas are satisfactorily met and (b) the dwelling houses in their areas comply with certain statutory specifications as to design, construction, equipment, etc.

(For administration in Scotland and Northern Ireland, see below, p. 136.)

(b) War Damage and Arrears of Building

Out of about 13 million houses in the United Kingdom at the outbreak of war in 1939, nearly 4½ millions were damaged or destroyed by enemy action. 220,000 houses were totally destroyed, 250,000 were so badly damaged as to be rendered uninhabitable, besides 4 millions that received slight damage.

More serious than war damage in creating the acute post-war shortage of houses were the almost complete cessation of new building and the minimum level of normal repair and maintenance work in the war years.

War-time shortage of labour and materials, together with the pressing demands of essential construction work for war purposes, meant that the amount of house-building possible in the war years was barely sufficient to cancel the losses by war damage. The number of houses completed between September, 1939, and May, 1945 (most of which were under construction on the day war broke out), did not exceed 200,000, of which 36,000 were in Scotland.

By 1938 the rate of building had reached 346,000 houses a year in England and Wales, and 26,000 a year in Scotland. Calculated at this rate the war years put Great Britain nearly two million houses in arrears.

(c) Housing Policy

Limited resources of men and materials in relation to the need for post-war reconstruction have made essential a system of planned priorities, and hence of controls. In August, 1945, housing was given first priority in the national reconstruction programme, a priority shared only with factories for development areas and one or two other essential forms of construction.

The total number of houses which can be built is determined by the limits of the available national resources. As part of the national economies found necessary in the autumn of 1949, the rate of house-building will be reduced during the course of 1950 from 200,000 to 175,000 houses a year.

The policy is to meet the greatest needs first and therefore the main emphasis has been on the building of suitably-sized houses for letting. Developments in

1947 led to special concentration on houses for miners and agricultural workers, who have the most important part to play in the nation's productive effort.

To carry out this policy the Government gives preference to building by local authorities (that is, normally, by private builders under contract to a local authority).

The reasons for choosing local authorities as the main instrument to carry through the housing programme are that local authorities are considered to be in a better position than private enterprise to build houses to let and within the reach of tenants who could not afford to buy; that local authorities are able to select tenants according to need; and that the activities of local authorities are more easily planned than those of private enterprise.

Private house-building can be carried on only under licence issued by the local authority (under Defence Regulations) and is normally restricted to houses having a superficial floor area of not more than 1,500 sq. ft. The licence is subject to a condition fixing the maximum selling price and rental, which varies according to the size and type of house. Except for the period from August, 1947, to June, 1948, when the issue of licences for private house-building was limited, normally, to proposals to provide accommodation at approved rents for miners or agricultural workers and the rebuilding of war-destroyed houses, the issue of licences was restricted up to October, 1949, to a rate allowing a maximum of one privately built house for every four houses built by the local authority. Licensing ceased temporarily in October, 1949, but it is to be resumed from 1st February, 1950, at a maximum ratio of one in ten. Every effort is made to ensure that the new houses go to families in genuine need of them.

A licence from the local authority is required for all repair or maintenance work to houses which is estimated to cost more than £100 in one year.

Standards of Accommodation Local authorities are now building bigger and better houses than ever before. The minimum floor area for a three-bedroomed two-storey house has been increased from 800 square feet to 900 square feet, and 900 square feet to 950 square feet is regarded as the appropriate range. This allows for two good-sized bedrooms and one smaller one, two good-sized rooms plus kitchen or scullery on the ground floor, a bathroom on the first floor and a W.C. on both floors. Along with the improvement in space standards goes an improvement in standards of design and equipment in full accordance with the recommendations of the *Design of Dwellings Sub-Committee* which reported to the Minister of Health in 1944. The new houses are fitted with a hot water system, better lighting, larger windows, fitted cupboards and improved kitchen equipment.

Houses of somewhat larger size may be included in local authority estates where it is necessary to secure mixed development.

The Housing Manual 1949 recommends space standards for various types and sizes of dwelling. It also gives examples of design and layout. Post-war plans favour a mixture of types of dwelling, including terrace houses, as opposed to the uniform development in two-storey semi-detached houses common between the wars.

Licences to build private houses are granted on condition that they are built to a standard satisfactory to the local authority and are open to inspection for this purpose.

(d) State Aid for Housing

(i) Subsidies

In order to enable local authorities, notwithstanding the present high cost of building, to let their houses at reasonable rents, subsidies are provided under the *Housing (Financial and Miscellaneous Provisions) Act*, April, 1946.

The former Act provides for a General Standard Subsidy of £22 per house per year for 60 years, the estimated amount of the annual deficit on a standard house assuming an average net rent (exclusive of rates) of 10s. per week (though actual rents will vary in different districts). The Exchequer contribution to this subsidy is fixed at £16 10s. per annum, the balance of £5 10s. to be met by the local authority.

Special rates of subsidy are provided by the Act for special types of housing. For houses for the agricultural population a Special Subsidy of £28 10s. (Exchequer £25 10s., County Council £1 10s., local authority £1 10s.) is provided. This higher subsidy is calculated on the basis of the lower average net rent of 7s. 6d. per week. Another Special Subsidy, the same as that for agricultural workers' houses, is paid for houses in "poor areas" (where there is a population of low rate-paying capacity). There is also a graduated subsidy scale for blocks of flats on expensive sites, and for houses built on such sites as part of "mixed development" of flats and houses. An addition to the special subsidy for flats is made for lifts where blocks exceed three storeys. Another special subsidy is provided where expensive works are necessary in order to minimise the risk of subsidence due to mining operations.

To accelerate the provision of houses by the use of non-traditional building methods an additional capital payment has hitherto been provided under the same acts to be made to local authorities for houses built by approved non-traditional methods to cover the extra cost above the average cost of a comparable traditional house, where the cost substantially exceeded that amount. This grant is only payable in respect of proposals approved before the end of 1947. Subsequently it is considered that non-traditional systems should be able to compete in price with traditional construction. The total cost of these capital grants is estimated at £27 millions for the three years 1947-50.

The *Housing Act*, July, 1949, provides for grants by local authorities, with Exchequer assistance, to persons converting or improving existing buildings at a cost of between £100 and £600 per dwelling. Grants, to which certain conditions are attached, may amount to up to half the cost. It also grants a subsidy for hostels built by local authorities or certain other bodies.

(ii) *Building Resources*

In order to secure that the best use is made of the limited building resources available, the national building programme is co-ordinated by a series of inter-departmental committees (central and regional). The use of timber and steel is subject to strict government control.

To recruit the labour force needed immediately special early release from the Forces was granted to building trade workers, a special register of workers with building experience compiled, and a special training scheme instituted.

The Building Apprenticeship and Training Council set up in 1943 keeps under review the long-term labour needs of the industry and recommends to the Government measures to maintain the necessary flow of new entrants.

(iii) *Temporary Houses*

To help to meet the immediate need for more houses the Government undertook, in addition to the permanent housing programme, a programme of temporary houses, factory-built and therefore making small demand on the skilled building labour that is in such short supply.

Temporary houses are of the single-storey two-bedroom type. The parts were made in factories and assembled on the sites. These houses are smaller than the permanent houses and are designed to last for ten years only, though it is expected

that some will be good for a considerably longer period. They have built-in labour-saving equipment and fittings, and must not be confused with the hutments erected in some badly blitzed areas in London to provide temporary shelter for the bombed.

The temporary houses have been provided by the Ministry of Works for erection on sites provided by local authorities. A sum of £220,000,000 was voted by Parliament for this purpose.

Local authorities are responsible for letting and collecting the rents of temporary houses, and are normally required to pay to the Ministry of Health a fixed annual sum in respect of each house so long as it stands. In allocating the houses to tenants the local authorities give priority to the applicants in greatest need of accommodation. The rents charged are very moderate, ranging normally from 10s. to 15s. per week, plus local rates. Tenants especially appreciate the modern fittings.

(iv) *Non-Traditional Permanent Houses*

The shortage of skilled building labour and traditional building materials has also led to the development of a number of non-traditional forms of construction for permanent houses which economise in both. Some types are steel-framed, some of pre-cast concrete, some of concrete poured *in situ* and some timber-framed. Two types, the B.I.S.F. steel house for urban areas and the Airey rural pre-cast concrete house for rural areas, have been produced in quantity under arrangements made by the Government for erection by local authorities. In addition, production of the aluminium bungalow, which is completely prefabricated and can be assembled on the site in a matter of hours, and which was originally provided under the temporary housing programme, is being extended as part of the permanent house programme to meet special and urgent housing needs in mining and other key industrial areas.

(e) *Control of Rents and Prices*

Legislation has prevented the shortage of housing that inevitably arises from war conditions from leading to an excessive rise in rents—the *Rent and Mortgage Interest (Restrictions) Act, 1939*, provided protection for tenants of unfurnished dwellings below a certain rateable value by limiting the rent that can be charged and giving security of tenure so long as the rent is paid. Similar protection was given to anyone buying a house on mortgage. The 1939 Act is one of a series of similar acts passed from 1915 onwards, the principal Act being the Act of 1920. Further provisions regarding rents of houses or parts of houses, within the same rateable value and let for the first time since 1st September, 1939, and regarding premiums, are included in the *Landlord and Tenant (Rent Control) Act, June, 1949*.

The rents paid for furnished accommodation in England and Wales are controlled by the *Furnished Houses (Rent Control) Act, 1946*. The Act applies to those districts, by now everywhere, in which the Minister of Health has by order directed that it shall have effect. The Act provides for the control of rents of houses, or parts of houses, let furnished or with services without limitation by rateable value. Local tribunals appointed for the purpose determine the rents of furnished lettings in cases referred to them by either party or by the local authority. The first such tribunal in England and Wales was set up in London in June, 1946. By the end of June, 1949, 41,106 cases had been referred to tribunals in England and Wales and rents reduced in 68 per cent of the 27,624 cases which were proceeded with and decided.

The *Building Materials and Housing Act, December, 1945*, provided a further safeguard by (*inter alia*) limiting for a period of four years* the rent and purchase

* Extended for a further four years by the Housing Act, 1949

price of any house constructed under licence granted for the purpose of a Regulation made under the *Emergency Powers (Defence) Acts, 1939 to 1945*, that is nearly every house built by private enterprise since the late war.

(f) Scotland

In Scotland housing is a function of the Secretary of State, whose housing and town and country planning responsibilities are exercised through the Department of Health for Scotland.

A special statutory body, the *Scottish Special Housing Association*, has been established to assist local authorities (particularly those in the areas of greatest need) in their ordinary housing programme. The Association is a limited company with no share capital, financed entirely from government funds, and works under the general direction of the Secretary of State. It is expected that the Association will be responsible for building about one-fifth of the half-million houses required in Scotland. (Scotland had something over 1½ million houses when this estimate was made.) By mid-1949 it had built 7,351 houses and had 5,228 building.

The standard of new housing in Scotland is similar to that in England and Wales and in accordance with the recommendations of the Scottish Housing Advisory Committee (see "Planning Our New Homes," H.M.S.O., 1944, 3s.).

Subsidies similar to those operating in England and Wales are provided in Scotland under the *Housing (Financial Provisions) (Scotland) Act, June, 1946*. The amounts are in general higher, mainly on account of the different rating system in Scotland.

Scotland pioneered rent control for furnished lettings under the *Rent of Furnished Houses Control (Scotland) Act, 1943*. There are minor differences between the rent control systems operating in Scotland and in England and Wales.

(g) Northern Ireland

In Northern Ireland the Ministry of Health and Local Government is responsible for housing and planning, while the supply functions of the Ministry of Works and Supply in England are shared between the Ministry of Commerce and the Works Branch of the Ministry of Finance.

The *Northern Ireland Housing Trust*, a body similar to the Scottish Special Housing Association, was set up under the *Housing Act (Northern Ireland), 1945*, as an additional agency for the building of workers' houses in Northern Ireland. The Trust is government-financed and has power to acquire and dispose of land, and to carry out building schemes subject to government approval. The Ministry of Health and Local Government indicates to the Trust the districts in which it should build and is guided in this by the contribution which the local authority is itself making to the housing needs of its area. The Trust is expected to build, in ten years, a quarter of the 100,000 houses that Northern Ireland needed at the end of the war. (In 1939 there were about 329,000 houses in Northern Ireland.) By 31st July, 1949, the Trust had completed 3,745 houses, and at 30th June, 1949, a total of 9,183 sites had been acquired.

(h) Progress since the War

During the period 31st March to 30th June, 1949, accommodation was provided in Great Britain—by construction of new houses and by repair of damaged, unoccupied houses and by requisitioning and conversion of existing houses—for a total of 999,710 families. In England and Wales during the same period 775,000 dwellings which were damaged during the war, but not so severely as to be unfit for occupation, were repaired.

Details of achievement by the end of June, 1949, are given in the following table :

SUMMARY OF POST-WAR HOUSING PROGRESS FROM 1ST APRIL, 1945, TO 30TH JUNE, 1949

	England and Wales	Scotland	Great Britain
New Houses Completed (including war-damaged houses rebuilt) :—			
Permanent	474,345	52,552	526,897
Temporary	124,970	32,176	157,146
Total	599,315	84,728	684,043
Unoccupied War-damaged Houses Repaired and Conversions and Adaptations	253,889	4,768	258,657
Requisitioned Unoccupied Houses..	25,479	3,566	29,045
Temporary Huts	3,136	—	3,136
Total Families Rehoused (excluding 24,829 accommodated in Service Camps)	881,819	93,062	974,881
Houses under Construction :—	155,978	34,508	190,486
Sites Acquired by Local Authorities			
For Permanent Houses	884,243	178,746	1,062,994
For Temporary Houses	124,970	32,176	157,146
Total	1,009,218	210,922	1,220,140
Site development begun (permanent)	391,631	105,150	496,781
Site development completed ..	314,764	95,009	409,773
Housing Labour Force	458,600	52,900	511,500

Northern Ireland : Between 1st April, 1945, and 30th June, 1949, 9,388 permanent houses were built in Northern Ireland, and 6,734 houses were under construction at the latter date.

IV. COMMUNICATIONS

1. INLAND TRANSPORT

(a) The Transport Act, 1947

On 6th August, 1947, the Transport Act became law.

This Act was described by the Minister of Transport (Mr. A. Barnes) as "the largest and most extensive socialisation measure ever presented to a free and democratic Parliament." Its general purpose is defined as "to provide, or secure or promote the provision of an efficient, adequate, economical and properly integrated system of public inland transport and port facilities within Great Britain for passengers and goods."

The central feature of the Act is the establishment of the British Transport Commission, consisting of a Chairman (Sir Cyril Hurcomb) and between four and eight other members, appointed by the Minister. On 1st January, 1948, all major railway and canal undertakings (including the docks, harbour works and hotels owned by the railways) and most privately owned railway wagons passed under the control of the Commission. That is the first and immediate effect of the Act. Secondly, it is incumbent on the Commission to acquire long-distance—over 40 miles—road haulage undertakings, except those carrying their own goods exclusively (C licence holders). Thirdly, the Commission may prepare area schemes for co-ordinating passenger services.* Lastly, the Commission will keep harbours other than dockyards and ports normally used by pleasure and fishing vessels, under continuous review with the aim of preparing similar area schemes.

A Central Transport Consultative Committee for Great Britain has been set up together with separate committees for Scotland and Wales. Others may be set up for such areas as the Minister thinks fit, covering the whole of Great Britain. The Act applies to Northern Ireland only in so far as the transferred railways and canals have interests there.

As agents to the Commission there are the following six bodies, the members being appointed by the Minister: (i) The Railway Executive; (ii) The London Transport Executive; (iii) The Road Passenger Executive; (iv) The Road Haulage Executive; (v) The Docks and Inland Waterways Executive; (vi) The Hotels Executive.

The Railway Rates Tribunal has been renamed the Transport Tribunal and acquired the jurisdiction exercised by the Railway and Canal Commission.

Compensation for assets and undertakings transferred has been made in the form of redeemable British Transport 3 per cent Stock guaranteed by the Treasury and is computed broadly as follows:

For Railways and Canals: On the quoted Stock Exchange value of the railway stocks at the beginning of November, 1946, or pre-election, whichever was the higher.

For Road Haulage: On the value of the assets at the date of transfer plus an amount in respect of cessation of business, plus, in certain circumstances, an amount for "severance."

For Local Authorities' Undertakings: On the sum necessary to cover the interest and sinking fund charges.

For privately owned railway wagons: On the value at the date of transfer.

The value of stock in respect of railways and canals alone is no less than £1,065,000,000. No estimate of the amount to be paid in compensation for other undertakings can yet be made. British Transport Stock up to £250,000,000 may also

*The first of these schemes was announced in August, 1949, to co-ordinate road and rail passenger services in Northumberland, Durham, and the greater part of the North Riding of Yorkshire.

be created for the purpose of borrowing money for capital needs. Further, the Commission may raise temporary loans not exceeding £25,000,000.

The Commission's general duty is "so to conduct its undertakings that the revenue is not less than sufficient for meeting charges properly chargeable to revenue taking one year with another." A copy of the Commission's Report is to be laid annually before each House of Parliament. The accounts of the Commission, published annually, provide separate information in respect of the principal activities of the Commission.

The following figures give an idea of the scope of the Commission's responsibility (exclusive of London Transport, for which see (d)) :—

Railways

Companies	60
Track Mileage	52,000
Locomotives	20,000
Passenger rolling stock	40,353
Freight Traffic Vehicles	1,165,166
Steamships	135
Employees	648,740

Canals

Navigable mileage	1,953
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Roads

Motor Vehicles and Articulated Units*	8,208
Trailers	1,717
Horse-drawn Vehicles	1,867
Horses	979
Buses and Coaches	12,114
Trolley Buses	43
Road Haulage Staff	23,195
Road Passenger Staff	53,229

The operation of public transport services by railway, motor vehicles, canals and in connection with the ports absorbs about 6 per cent of the total working population.

(b) Railways

The nationalisation of the railways has in no way affected their programme of restoration and development necessitated by six years of war, when they bore an unparalleled strain and when reconstruction, beyond the barest essentials, was impossible.

Repairs of permanent way and construction of locomotives, carriages and wagons are the immediate tasks in hand. Beyond this the railways have a long-term programme of development including extension of electrification, improvement of signalling appliances, mechanisation of goods depots and marshalling yards, and modernisation of stations, hotels and refreshment rooms. A start has been made on all these plans, but their full implementation lies now, of course, with the British Transport Commission.

(c) Roads

In December, 1946, the Minister of Transport announced his intention to make a start with a ten-year road plan. The Government's policy, as previously announced

* Articulated Units comprise a tractor and a trailer. Spare articulated trailers and four-wheeled trailers are counted as 7 trailers.

(May, 1946), is the "promotion of safety on the highways, improvements to assist Development Areas in particular and industrial development generally, including better access to ports and markets; improved through communications; rehabilitation and improvement of towns and countryside; the redevelopment of devastated areas; the improvement of access between the home and the workshop or office, and reduction of traffic congestion; and, in the country, the promotion of the efficiency of agriculture."

Among the more immediate projects were to have been the Severn Bridge, the longest suspension bridge in Europe, and for which the foundation borings have now been completed, the Jarrow Tunnel under the River Tyne, and the Lower Thames Tunnel, of which the pilot had already been driven before the war. In later stages the plan envisages the reconstruction of the principal national routes and the provision of new roads reserved for motor traffic. In May, 1949, the *Special Roads Act* became law. This gives the Government and local authorities power to construct separate motorways and other single-purpose roads (e.g., for pedestrians, cyclists). The cost of the motorways projected is estimated at £150,000,000.

Unfortunately the need to concentrate national resources on work which will increase exports and reduce the need for imports, has caused the postponement of the projects mentioned above. Certain others, however, because of their importance to industrial production, or because they are necessary to maintain essential communications, have been allowed to proceed. Examples are Deptford Creek Bridge, London, road-diversion at I.C.I. works, Teesside, and a new trunk road in South Wales.

The Road Safety Campaign has continued under the Ministry of Transport, with the co-operation of the Government Departments concerned and the Royal Society for the Prevention of Accidents. *Figures for deaths in Great Britain for the years 1938-1948 are as follows:—*

1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945	1946	1947	1948
6,648	8,272	8,609	9,169	6,926	5,796	6,416	5,256	5,062	4,881	4,513

In 1946, 157,484 people were injured; in 1947, 161,318; and in 1948, 148,884.

The basic ration of petrol, which had remained unchanged from July, 1946, giving about 270 miles of motoring per month, was withdrawn on 1st October, 1947, in order to conserve dollar resources. A committee was later set up to inquire into the black market in petrol, the existence of which was one of the obstacles to restoring the basic ration. On 8th April, 1948, the Minister of Fuel and Power announced that following the adoption of certain recommendations made by this committee, the ration would be restored on 1st June to give about 90 miles of motoring per month. This has been accomplished without increasing the total consumption of petrol, through the medium of the committee's recommendations and certain other economies.

Special arrangements are in force for overseas visitors, who may enjoy up to 1,600 miles motoring in a stay of three months. They can also draw extra petrol for business purposes.

(d) London's Traffic Problem

Although the population of the London Transport area is still below the pre-war figure its traffic problems have increased. More people are living on the fringes with a consequent increase of movement between place of residence and work. The most obvious result of this shift of population is the strain imposed upon London Transport. The following census is illustrative of the problem:

COMPARATIVE FIGURES,

pre-war and in 1946, showing vehicles and car-mileage operated by London Transport and passenger journeys originating on the systems operated by London Transport on a typical weekday (Tuesday).

	Pre-war			1946		
	Rail	Central Buses	Trams and Trolley Buses	Rail	Central Buses	Trams and Trolley Buses
Vehicles	2,770	4,796	2,358	2,908	4,879	2,336
Car-Mileage	514,718	648,383	328,413	582,637	656,083	311,628
Passenger Journeys	1,431,417	5,488,994	2,981,282	1,686,254	6,515,872	3,396,281

The crux of the matter is the "rush-hour," morning and evening. Of the 800,000 morning (i.e., 7.0-10.0 a.m.) passengers, half travel between 8.30 and 9.30. Of the 850,000 evening (i.e., 4.30-7.0 p.m.) passengers, half travel between 5.0 and 6.0.

To combat this congestion a campaign was launched at the end of 1946 by the Minister of Transport, who initiated a series of conferences between local authorities, business interests, employers and workers. The aim of the conferences was the co-operation of all parties in the staggering of working hours and the consequent amelioration of travelling conditions. So far, adjustments have been made in the hours of 138,000 workers.

Other measures taken to relieve traffic congestion include a prohibition of street-trading and the waiting of motor vehicles (except for the purpose of setting down and taking up) in certain streets in Central London. These measures in a very short time improved the flow of traffic and reduced the number of accidents by 22 per cent compared with an increase of 8 per cent over the whole area. Bombed sites are extensively used for car-parks. New buses and railway cars are on order for London Transport. In use, too, are many new taxi-cabs. 1,000 have been ordered to supplement the 5,600 in the streets, of which 72 per cent are over 10 years old. Before the war, London supported about 8,000 taxis.

The Central Line received further extensions in 1947-8, so that one can now travel from West Ruislip in Middlesex to Hamault in Essex, a distance of 30 miles.

The magnitude of the capital's traffic problems can be roughly perceived by a few figures for 1948 :

Railway Passenger Vehicles	.	.	3,930
Buses and Coaches	..	.	7,527
Trams	..	.	862
Trolley Buses	1,763
Service car miles run	..	.	648,179,000
Passengers carried	4,675,000,000
Employees	100,793

In July, 1949, the Transport Commission put forward proposals for extensive developments in the London railway system at a cost of some £340,000,000 and taking 20-30 years to complete. Among the recommendations are the construction of 49 miles of new tube and the electrification of steam suburban services. These are labelled works of first priority. Construction of further tubes is also listed as work of lower priority.

2. SHIPPING AND SHIPBUILDING

(a) General Tonnage Position

In 1939 the sea-going merchant fleet of the United Kingdom amounted to some 17 million gross registered tons, more than a quarter of the total world tonnage. During the war the fleet suffered losses amounting to over 11 million gross registered tons, or nearly half the total Allied war losses, and by 1945, in spite of new building, the fleet was only about 13 million gross registered tons, or a sixth of the world tonnage. As a result of new building and purchases the dry cargo and tanker fleets were nearly back to the pre-war strength in 1949 representing just over one-fifth of a greater total world tonnage, the result of the tremendous war-time output in North America. Most of the war-time construction, both in North America and in the United Kingdom, was of the large bulk-cargo type, unsuitable for many of the normal trade routes, and this, taken in conjunction with the heavy U.K. losses of specialised types, has resulted in a change in the balance of the fleet compared with pre-war.

This is illustrated in the following table, where the fall in the amount of medium-sized vessels can be seen as well as the rise in the 5,000 to 10,000 g.r.t. class, which includes the large war-built bulk carriers :

ANALYSIS OF UNITED KINGDOM FLEET (OTHER THAN TANKERS) BY SIZE

Size Group (gross registered tonnage)	(Tonnage in '000 g.r.t.)			
	September, 1939		December, 1947	
	Tonnage	Percentage	Tonnage	Percentage
500-1,599	784	6	571	5
1,600-4,999	3,473	25	1,888	15
5,000-9,999	6,372	46	7,272	60
10,000 and over ..	3,234	23	2,381	20
	13,863	100	12,112	100

Great progress has been made since the war towards repairing the damage British shipping suffered during the war, and restoring tonnage from its war-time condition to civilian use. The huge reconversion programme was completed by 1949. In order to relieve the pressure for passenger accommodation some ships have been converted on austerity lines, but only until the abnormal demand for space has been satisfied.

Physical losses were made good during the war by American-built ships on charter which had to be returned after the end of hostilities. There was thus revealed a painful gap between pre- and post-war tonnage, a gap which has already been nearly filled by newly built ships, but the tonnage which survived the war becomes less economical to maintain with each year that passes. Many of the older ships are overdue for scrapping, and it would not pay to convert them to more modern standards. By the end of 1948 about two million tons had been added to the dry cargo fleet, and it is estimated there will be a net addition of nearly a quarter of a million in 1949. About the same amount of new tonnage will replace that going out of commission through obsolescence or loss.

The proportion of ships more than twenty years old was considerably higher after than before the war ; on the other hand the percentage of those less than ten

years old was already 55 per cent in 1947, compared with 32 per cent in 1939 and has continued to rise.

(b) Shipbuilding

(1) New ships for U.K. owners have been delivered at the rate of about three-quarters of a million gross tons a year for the last three years.

The continuance of our shipbuilding programme is necessary first to restore the deficiencies in specialised tonnage caused by the war, and secondly to replace the old tonnage.

(2) Apart from this the British shipbuilding industry has a very high export value. The proportion of export work now in hand has been increasing for some time and is now about one-third of the total output. A very large proportion of recent exports has been to countries participating in E.R.P.

(3) In general, emphasis is laid throughout the programme, not only on the need to improve quality, but also on the need to build the right types of ships. There is a great shortage of refrigerated ships, fruit and timber carriers, etc., and, most important of all, tanker tonnage, which falls by a substantial margin to meet a world demand nearly half as great again as pre-war. In 1948 291,000 g.t. of tankers were launched in the United Kingdom out of a world total of 600,000 g.t. Britain's tanker fleet totalled about 3½ million g.t. in mid-1949, compared with about 3 million g.t. in 1939. Even so about 300,000 g.t. had to be chartered from the U.S.A. in 1948 at a cost of 27½ million dollars. Tanker construction is planned to rise rapidly during the next three or four years.

(4) Apart from the war years, which brought about the tremendous output in North America, the United Kingdom has retained its pre-eminence as a shipbuilding nation. This is established by the following table:

MERCHANT TONNAGE LAUNCHED
(Figures from Lloyd's Register)

Year	World	U.K.	U.K. percentage of World
1935	1.30	0.50	38
1936	2.12	0.86	40
1937	2.69	0.92	34
1938	3.03	1.03	34
1939	2.54	0.63	25
1940	1.75	0.84	48
1941	2.50	1.19	48
1942	7.83	1.27	16
1943	13.89	1.14	8
1944	11.18	0.92	8
1945	7.20	0.89	12
1946	2.13	1.12	53
1947	2.11	1.19	57
1948	2.31	1.18	51

Note: (1) The "world" column of this table is incomplete in respect of the launchings in a number of countries for which information was not available during some of the years concerned

(2) The high figure of world tonnage launched during the war was mainly due to the special war-time building in the U.S.A.

(5) The difficulties experienced in common by all manufacturing countries through scarcity of materials have handicapped the industry since 1945, but supplies both of raw materials and of finished components have improved.

Ships completed totalled 1·22 million g.t. in 1948 and are expected to be about 1·1 million g.t. in 1949 compared with 0·95 and 0·99 million g.t. in 1947 and 1946 respectively. The improvement in 1948 was the result of a better supply of component parts ; in 1947 work on a number of vessels was delayed in the fitting-out stage.

On 30th September, 1949, there were rather more than two million gross tons of shipping under construction in the U.K., representing 45·5 per cent of the world total.

(c) Merchant Navy

(i) *Strength.* It is estimated that, excluding Asiatic seamen, the number of officers and men employed in the British Mercantile Marine at the present time is 141,000.

(ii) *Seamen's Welfare.* In April, 1948, general responsibility for the welfare of merchant seamen in this country and of British merchant seamen in overseas ports passed from the Ministry of Transport to the newly established Merchant Navy Welfare Board, a body comprising representatives of shipowners, seafarers, voluntary societies, and the appropriate Government Departments.

The new board was set up as the result of an agreement between the National Maritime Board and the main voluntary organisations, with the approval of the Government Departments concerned.

Port Welfare Committees (15 in all in the U.K.) are being continued by the Board, subject to any necessary minor adjustments in their membership, and Regional Seamen's Welfare Officers have been appointed in London, Cardiff, Liverpool, Newcastle and Glasgow, whose areas cover all ports of any importance on the coast of the United Kingdom.

Existing Merchant Navy Houses and Clubs, for which the Ministry of Transport was formerly responsible, have been transferred to the Board, who manage them direct, or to voluntary societies, who run them as their own establishments, but on the same lines as hitherto.

In a few instances, war-time premises for which there is no further need have been closed.

3. CIVIL AVIATION

(a) The Civil Aviation Act, 1946

On 1st August, 1946, the *Civil Aviation Act* became law. This opened a new chapter in the history of British civil air transport.

The Act established national control of British Civil Air Services through three publicly owned Air Corporations, functioning under the general policy supervision of the Minister of Civil Aviation, who is also responsible for the management of airports.

The corporations to whom a monopoly of scheduled air services (for details see (b) below) was granted were :

British Overseas Airways Corporation ;

British European Airways Corporation ;

British South American Airways Corporation.

By the *Airways Corporation Act, 1949*, the British South American Airways Corporation was amalgamated with the British Overseas Airways Corporation.

The Boards of the Corporations are appointed by and responsible to the Minister of Civil Aviation. Although they are required to carry out any direction issued to them by the Minister there is no interference with day-to-day management, and they are accorded the maximum freedom in conducting their internal affairs consistent with the Government's policy and the Minister's responsibility to Parliament. Two advisory committees, "for the purpose of ensuring that due regard is paid to the civil aviation needs of particular areas," have been appointed—one for Scotland, and the other for Northern Ireland.

The Corporations' business is the operation of air services, not the provision of aircraft, which are ordered by the Ministry of Civil Aviation and manufactured under the control of the Ministry of Supply.

The Corporations must conduct their business as far as possible on the lines of an ordinary commercial undertaking. Their accounts are kept in conformity with commercial practice and, with reports of their operations, must be laid annually before Parliament (see above, p. 40). In order to carry the Corporations over the initial period of operation annual grants may be made from the Exchequer in respect of deficiencies of receipts over expenditure until 1956, by which time it is hoped that they will be on a firm financial basis.

The Act provides for full consultation with representative interests on terms and conditions of service for employees of the three Corporations. A National Joint Council for Civil Air Transport as the central piece of consultative machinery has been established to secure the development of the largest possible measure of joint action between the Corporations and their employees, with a view to the maintenance of good conditions in civil air transport, and the promotion of the best interests of all concerned. This Council has powers to form Sectional Joint Panels for such groups of employees as it may decide. The Minister is also required to make regulations which will provide for the establishment and maintenance of superannuation schemes and benefits in case of death or injury for employees of any of the three Corporations.

The Act reserves to the Corporations and their agents and associates the right to carry passengers or goods for hire or reward upon "scheduled" journeys between any two places, at least one of which is in the United Kingdom. A scheduled journey is defined as "one of a series of journeys which are undertaken between the same two places and which together amount to a systematic service operated in such a manner that the benefits thereof are available to members of the public from time to time seeking to take advantage of it." The effect of this provision is to permit *bona fide* charter flying but to prevent trespass on the field of scheduled services, which are the sole prerogative of the Corporations. The Corporations, however, are free to compete with private undertakings for charter business if they so desire, but any charter work is purely incidental to their main business.

No restrictions are imposed in connection with instructional flying or upon operating air ambulance or rescue services, even if these amount to a scheduled service.

An Air Transport Advisory Council was set up under the Act in June, 1947. Its duty is "to consider any representation from any person with respect to the adequacy of the facilities provided by any of the three Corporations, or with respect to the charges for any such facilities." It has the further duty of considering questions put to it by the Minister. The Council is required to make an annual report of its proceedings, which the Minister must lay before Parliament together with a statement of any action taken by him thereon.

(b) The Corporations

BOAC	BEAC
(a) <i>Chairman</i> Sir Miles Thomas	Marshal of the R.A.F. Lord Douglas
(b) <i>Headquarters</i> Airways Terminal, Buckingham Palace Road, London, S.W.1	Keyline House, Northolt, Middlesex
(c) <i>Main Airports</i> London Airport Southampton (Flying Boat Base)	Northolt, Middlesex
(d) <i>Staff as at mid-1949</i>	
Flight Personnel .. 1,782*	612
Other Staff .. 19,122*	5,868
Total Staff .. 20,904*	6,480

*Including BSAAC

BOAC (including BSAAC) covers the North and South Atlantic, including the Caribbean area and services across South America ; West, East and South Africa ; the Middle East, India, Pakistan, Ceylon and Burma ; the Far East and Australasia. Associated with it, in various degrees of partnership or collaboration, are the regional or external operators of all the Dominions and Colonies.

These include BCPA (British Commonwealth Pacific Airlines), which runs services across the Pacific between Australia/New Zealand and Canada in parallel with Canadian Pacific Airlines ; TCA (Trans-Canada Airlines), the Atlantic "chosen instrument" of Canada ; QEA (or Qantas) of Australia, which shares with BOAC the fast London-Sydney landplane service ; TEAL (Tasman Empire Airways Ltd.) which operates flying-boats between Australia and New Zealand ; SAA (South African Airways) which operates in parallel with BOAC between London and Johannesburg ; the regional operators inside Africa, WAAC, EAAC, and CAAC (West, East, and Central African Airways Corporations) ; WIAC, the West Indian subsidiary of BSAAC ; Malayan Airways, Hong Kong Airways and various other local companies.

BOAC (with BSAAC) is calculated to-day to have the longest route network in the world, with a spread of 80,298 miles of routes (the Air France network being the next longest with 64,560 miles). BOAC is also stated to have the longest average passenger journeys of any operator (3,060 miles), other companies seldom carrying passengers in the same aircraft for greater distances than 2,500 miles and the average for all international operators being under 1,000 miles. Except for the round-the-world routes, which are not yet operated by any airline without change of aircraft, the BOAC-QEA route U.K.-Australia is the longest regular scheduled route (11,882 miles) in any time-table.

The other Corporation, BEAC, which was originally a "division" of BOAC and hived off in 1946, has a very different job to do. Instead of long-range routes

linking a few major traffic centres widely separated by oceans or deserts—routes which have, in many cases, as much strategic as commercial significance—BEAC operates on short or medium routes into densely populated and highly competitive European and Mediterranean areas. In addition to its Continental services, BEAC also operates the internal services within the U.K., either on its own account or through a number of private companies associated with it.

In the case of both Corporations, an increasing amount of the work of providing local or feeder services is being taken over by subsidiary or associated local companies. BEAC, for instance, has financial and operational interests in Aer Lingus (the Irish national company which provides all services between Eire and the U.K.), in Gibraltar Airways (serving Tangier), Malta Airways (for the Central Mediterranean), Cyprus Airways (Eastern Mediterranean) and Alitalia (operating external routes from Italy). BOAC, in addition to the partners and associates already mentioned, has been instrumental in the development of several Middle East airlines. Both Corporations are also shareholders in International Aeradio (see p. 149).

A number of private British air charter companies have established successful lines of business since the war, notably in the carriage of "tramp" freight and in the organisation of special passenger parties or tours in connection with seasonal or local festivities. Several of these companies are associated with BEAC for the operation of internal services in the United Kingdom. They also played an important part in the provision of aircraft for the civil side (organised by BEAC) of the Berlin air-lift. The British Air Charter Association represents their interests, and a parallel organisation to the Baltic Shipping Exchange provides a clearing-house for the soliciting and securing of charters.

The main growth, however, in British air transport since the war has been in the extension and intensification of the Corporation's services. During 1948 the passenger miles flown on scheduled services increased by more than a quarter over the 1947 figure (555·3 million as compared with 439·1), and the freight ton miles increased by more than half (15·6 million from 10·1). Two of the Corporations (BOAC and BEAC) increased their freight carriage by more than two-thirds.

These increases are partly a reflection of the still continuing process of restoring world-wide communications dislocated by the war, but they are also evidence of a greater readiness to make use of air transport by commercial and other communities in Britain and the regions of the world served by British air lines. There is estimated to be roughly four times as much air transport and travel to-day as there was before the war; for example, 910,000 passengers came to or left the U.K. by air in 1948, which is approximately five times the pre-war figure. Moreover, much of the increase in the Corporations' traffic has been gained in highly competitive areas, such as the North Atlantic, the Western European, the Far East and the South African routes.

The Air Corporations' activities are increasingly becoming a national asset. Not only do their communications generally assist British and Commonwealth trade and intercourse, but they are also of direct value to the export drive and themselves earn good money abroad. The North Atlantic services of BOAC in particular are a valuable dollar-earner. In common with virtually all other forms of air transport everywhere, British civil aviation does not—and cannot at present be expected to—pay for itself; the provision of aerodromes of international standard and of navigational installations and facilities must, for many years to come, be a charge on the national finances unrelated to the actual receipts or expenses of the operational services.

On the operational side, the British scheduled services are, it is considered, quite likely to "break even" and possibly to show a profit within the next three or four years, depending upon the supply and success of the new aircraft types and on the development of economical bases and maintenance equipment.

With the gradual disappearance of the disabilities inherited from the war years, effective measures of co-ordination and economy are becoming practicable, and the Corporations and the Ministry of Civil Aviation are making a concerted drive towards higher aircraft utilisation and lower costs. One example is the reduction in the Corporation's staffs by about 7,000 in the 18 months up to mid-1949. In spite of this reduction, the capacity-ton-miles produced per man per month—which is the most significant yardstick of efficiency applicable to air transport—have risen, for all the Corporations. They have doubled in two years from 270 in the summer of 1947 to 545 at mid-1949.

However, in air transport it is not so much the quantity of service that matters as its quality, and the "chosen instruments" of British civil aviation have been renowned, ever since they began 25 years ago with the formation of Imperial Airways, for a certain standard of operational efficiency.

(e) *Revenue Mileage, Passengers and Freight for 1948-9 Financial Year.*

	BOAC	BEAC	BSAAC
Unduplicated Route Mileage ..	60,954	11,885	16,217
Aircraft miles flown	25,772,196	12,786,907	5,121,442
Passenger miles	362,101,251	155,027,743	47,538,862
Freight and Mail ton miles ..	19,102,266	3,488,083	3,821,547
Passengers carried	120,334	577,122	21,005

(c) *Air Safety*

(i) *Accidents*

The following table gives accident data for the last ten years. It covers operations on regular passenger-carrying services flown by United Kingdom operators including associated companies of BEAC, but excluding associated companies on Commonwealth routes. Certain war-time services unrepresentative of normal civil operations are excluded and no account is taken of accidents due, or presumed due, to enemy action.

Year	Aircraft Stage Flights	Aircraft Miles Flown	Passen- ger Miles Flown	Passen- gers carried	Acci- dents result- ing in death	Passengers		Crew	
						Killed	Seri- ously inj'd	Killed	Seri- ously inj'd
		thousands							
1948	98,500	40,833	554,461	713	3	35	2	11	2
1947	113,200	39,522	441,140	586	5	24	4	18	1
1946	89,600	33,017	362,841	424	4	29	1	11	2
1945	65,600	28,031	301,901	251	—	—	—	—	—
1944	45,700	19,480	179,208	169	2	10	—	8	—
1943	38,400	13,160	124,777	133	4	45	—	17	—
1942	33,900	10,689	102,116	109	1	13	—	6	—
1941	28,800	7,559	56,855	84	1	—	1	1	—
1940	26,600	5,803	42,147	67	1	4	—	4	1
1939	80,500	11,464	56,367	202	5	9	1	7	3
1938	91,400	13,220	53,412	219	4	12	4	8	1

(ii) *Air Safety Board*

On 26th November, 1946, the Minister announced the creation of the Air Safety Board in the following words: "If I were asked what is the general policy which I wish to lay down for my Ministry, I should say it would be to pursue, first of all, safety; secondly, safety; thirdly, safety; and then, regularity, adequacy of service, and speed.... I emphasised the question of safety, and I attach the first importance to it. Consequently I have decided to set up an expert body to exercise responsibility, under my authority, for all matters pertaining to safety in British civil aviation. I am setting up an Air Safety Board which will have these terms of reference:

"To keep under continuous review the needs of safety in British civil aviation and recommend measures calculated to promote safety in respect of both

(a) the operation of British civil aircraft throughout the world; and

(b) the efficiency of the system of ground facilities provided for civil aircraft of all nations operating over the United Kingdom.

"The Board will be empowered to initiate action in matters of urgency and it will have freedom of initiative in directing inquiry into and study of all aspects of air safety."

(iii) *International Aeradio Ltd.*

Following the recommendation by ICAO (International Civil Aviation Organisation, which was established on 7th December, 1944, as a result of the International Civil Aviation Conference in Chicago) of certain types of navigation aid and landing equipment, the formation of a new company under the chairmanship of Mr. Whitney Straight (Managing Director BOAC), International Aeradio Ltd., was announced. This company, which is non-profit-making, has been sponsored by the three Corporations and will install and operate telecommunications and radio aids to navigation wherever they are required and would not otherwise be obtainable. The purpose is to achieve a reasonable and uniform standard of navigation and landing aids—and therefore of safety and regularity in air services all over the world. It was evident that if the ICAO recommendations were to be implemented throughout the areas served by the expanding international air services many countries would need assistance in the provision and operation of modern communications systems.

(d) *London Airport*

London Airport (formerly known as Heathrow), about 14 miles west of the centre of the city, has been developed as an international civil airport entirely since the end of the war and is now as large, as well-equipped and as busy as any aerodrome in the world. Its three main runways have an aggregate length of nearly four miles, together with about a further four miles of subsidiary runways (apart from taxiing tracks, aprons, etc.). In its complete development, planned over a period of fifteen years, the runway area will be about twice the present area. The airport is equipped with both the internationally approved bad-weather landing aids (ILS, the Instrument Landing System, and GCA, the Ground Controlled Approach), together with all the latest forms of Medium, High and Very High Frequency Direction-Finding equipment, as well as SBA (Standard Beam Approach—an earlier version of ILS) and the BABS-Eureka radar beacon system.

In 1948 the airport was used by 385,673 passengers, with a total of 23,535 aircraft movements in and out. More than 6,500 tons of freight and 3,500 tons of mail were handled, and an average of 100,000 gallons of aviation fuel were supplied each week of the year. The airport is the main base of BOAC and during 1950 is likely also to become BEAC's main base (in place of Northolt). In 1948 it was also used regularly by 16 other scheduled airlines.

(e) The College of Aeronautics

This College was established by the Government as an Empire Centre for the training at post-graduate level of men destined to take leading positions in the aircraft industry, the research establishments, the services, and in education. It was opened on 15th October, 1946, at Cranfield, near Bedford, a few miles from the site of the new Government research establishment. The Principal, Mr. E. F. Relf, was appointed on 1st January, 1946. Control of the College is vested in a board of governors appointed by the Ministry of Education and representing a very wide range of aeronautical interests. There are departments dealing with aerodynamics, aircraft design and aircraft propulsion, together with a department of flight in which students carry out flight experiments to extend knowledge gained in classroom and laboratory. The closely related subjects of mathematics, metallurgy and electronics are also covered. The main activity at present is the two-year course. The first year is devoted to a broad study of aeronautics in all the departments, while in the second year the student specialises according to his future needs.

(f) Private Flying

(i) Flying (Light Aeroplane) Clubs

Flying clubs had about 400 aircraft on the outbreak of war, 287 were requisitioned and the remainder were either lost through enemy action or deteriorated into unserviceability. There are now about 100 flying clubs and community ownership groups operating at least 200 aircraft of their own as well as a proportion of the 385 aircraft registered as in private ownership. There are in addition thought to be about 180 aircraft used primarily for business communications purposes.

The number of "A" licences issued by the Ministry of Civil Aviation during 1948 was 1,784. The number of such licences current at the end of the year was 4,004.

(ii) Gliding Clubs

Gliding in Great Britain is slowly recovering from the effects of the war, when all clubs were closed by the Government and their machines requisitioned for training the Glider Pilot Regiment and the Air Training Corps. About 300 gliders were taken for this purpose.

On 1st January, 1946, the Gliding Clubs were allowed to restart. They had 12 machines between them. There are now in existence about 35 groups owning between them about 100 sailplanes and gliders. In addition British Service units stationed abroad have formed a number of gliding clubs.

Up to the end of 1948 there had been issued by the British Gliding Association a total of 14,394 certificates of proficiency in gliding, comprising 9,453 "A" certificates, 3,194 "B" certificates, and 1,747 "C" certificates.

On 1st May, 1949, a British single-seater distance gliding record was established by Mr. P. A. Wills, C.B.E., who flew from Hatfield, Hertfordshire, to Gerrans in Cornwall, a distance of 232.6 miles.

4. GENERAL POST OFFICE

In common with all other services in Great Britain the Post Office has had to face a programme of reconstruction after the war. Physical damage, shortage of materials, increased costs and improved social conditions are all important factors in a heavy task. "It is rather uphill work for the Post Office at present," said the Postmaster-General, Mr. W. Paling, in the House of Commons on 2nd July, 1947, "and if it sometimes stumbles, it is because the hill is at times pretty steep. But we shall get to the top all right."

As the new company was one which closely concerned the several parts of the Empire, it was essential that its policy should be co-ordinated accordingly. The Commonwealth Communications Council was, therefore, set up by the United Kingdom and Dominion Governments, and has, towards Cable and Wireless Limited, advisory and regulatory functions.

In 1945 the Commonwealth Communications Conference, attended by representatives from the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, India, and Southern Rhodesia, proposed that all private interests in overseas telecommunications, both in the United Kingdom and in the Dominions, should be acquired by the respective Governments, that uniformity of organisation in all the countries of the Commonwealth be reached and that a Commonwealth Telecommunications Board be formed to succeed the Commonwealth Communications Council, with wider power to co-ordinate policy, systems, defence and research.

The *Cable and Wireless Act, 1946*, was the U.K. Government's first step towards full implementation of the proposals of the 1945 Conference.

Under the *Commonwealth Telegraphs Act, 1949*, a Commonwealth Telecommunications Board is to be established for the purpose, *inter alia*, of making recommendations to Partner Governments on external communications matters, undertaking research, and setting up and administering a Central Fund for the receipt of the net revenues of the national bodies. The Act also provides for the acquisition on 1st April, 1950, of Cable & Wireless Ltd.'s Telecommunications Assets in the United Kingdom by the Post Office, which shall be the "National Body" for the U.K. on the Commonwealth Telecommunications Board.

The assets of the company on transfer to the State included 155,000 nautical miles of submarine cable, 5 cable ships, 4 wireless stations in the United Kingdom, and some 200 offices and cable and wireless stations widely scattered over a large number of countries, 40 of these being in different parts of the Commonwealth.

The company's headquarters and Central Telegraph Station are at Electra House, Victoria Embankment, whence landlines provide connection with 19 offices throughout London, 15 offices in the provinces, Scotland and Northern Ireland, and with the cable station at Porthcurno near Land's End (Cornwall) and wireless stations at Ongar and Breatwood (both Essex), Dorchester (Dorset) and Somerton (Somerset).

Eleven cables leave Porthcurno, continuing as a series of chains connecting the United Kingdom with Newfoundland, Nova Scotia and Canada, with the east and west coasts of South America, with the West Coast of Africa and South Africa, and with the Mediterranean, Red Sea, India, Pakistan, Ceylon, the Dutch East Indies, Malaya, China and Australasia. Landlines across Canada connect Montreal with British Columbia whence the company's Pacific cable provides a further link with Australia and New Zealand. South Africa is connected via the Indian Ocean with the Dutch East Indies, Australasia, East Africa, Aden, Ceylon and India. The Company operates 8 cable ships for the maintenance of the submarine cable system, chartering others as occasion arises.

The Company operates 50 wireless circuits from Great Britain and double that number between various parts of the world outside Great Britain. Twenty phototelegraph services are operated between London and Athens, Barbados, Bermuda, Berne, Bombay, Buenos Aires, Cape Town (with extensions to Durban and Johannesburg), Cairo, Colombo, Lisbon, Melbourne (with extension to Sydney), Montreal, Moscow, Nairobi, New York, Salisbury and Wellington; one-way services, Amman-London and Singapore-London; and between Bermuda and New York. The Company also operates a large number of overseas radiotelephone circuits.

The "Empire Flat Rate" provides a maximum tariff of 1s. 3d. a word for all Ordinary Telegrams, and 1d. a word for non-urgent Press Telegrams, between all countries of the Commonwealth; Empire Greetings Telegrams are charged at 5d. per word, minimum 12 words.

The full Ordinary Rate for telegrams to New York is 9d. per word, and 10d. to other destinations in the United States.

Following are representative rates:—

For Telegrams from Great Britain
Per Ordinary (full rate) word

EUROPE—					s. d.
France	3 (wireless) 4 (cable)
Greece	4½
Italy	3½
Portugal	3½
Spain	3½
EXTRA EUROPE—					
Argentina	2 1
Australia	1 3
Canada (Eastern Zone)	9
China—					
Macau	2 7
Other offices	2 5
Hong Kong	1 3
Egypt (Cairo, etc.)	11
South Africa	1 3

Special Rates for Non-Urgent Press Telegrams per Word

To	s. d.
All Countries in the British Commonwealth	1
U.S.A. (New York City)	1½
Argentina	6
China (all offices except Macau) ..	3½
Egypt (Cairo, etc.)	2½

Cable and Wireless services include Ordinary (Full Rate) Telegrams, and, at reduced rates, Deferred and Letter Telegrams, in addition to Greetings Telegrams within the Empire.

The company's free routing indication in most countries is "Via Imperial."

6. BROADCASTING

(a) Constitution of the B.B.C.

The B.B.C. started as the British Broadcasting Company in 1922 and became the British Broadcasting Corporation on 1st January, 1927. A public corporation, created by Royal Charter (renewed in 1946 until the end of 1951) and controlled by

a Board of Governors, it is neither a Government Department nor a commercial company, nor does it work for profit. It maintains broadcasting stations under licence from the Postmaster-General, with whom it has also an Agreement containing certain general provisions as to the way in which the broadcasting service shall be carried out. While an ultimate control is maintained by Parliament and the Government for the nation, the B.B.C. enjoys wide independence both in constitution and practice (see also p. 38).

(b) Finance

Owners of wireless sets (registered blind persons excepted) pay an annual licence fee of one pound, which is collected by the Post Office. Until the outbreak of war an agreed percentage of this revenue was paid to the B.B.C. to maintain its services. In war time the B.B.C. was financed out of a Grant-in-Aid by Parliament, the income from licence-fees being quite inadequate to support the vast overseas services which have been in operation since 1939. Since 1st January, 1947, the pre-war system of financing out of licence income has been restored for all broadcasting to listeners within the United Kingdom, including television. All external services, including monitoring, will be paid for by Grant-in-Aid. While the B.B.C. has agreed to certain control over the expenditure of this Grant-in-Aid, the policy of all the external services is without exception the responsibility of the Corporation.

To finance itself through the coming period of major development the Corporation has been allotted 85 per cent of the net licence revenue from its listeners for the first three and a quarter years, and whatever is negotiated thereafter. The capital programme which faces the Corporation, if it is to develop British broadcasting to its fullest extent, will in the view of the Governors eventually call for the use of the full licence income throughout the whole of the period.

(c) Policy

The policy of the B.B.C. is governed by the duty laid upon it by its charter to be a medium of information and education as well as of entertainment. It looks on broadcasting as a powerful instrument in the construction of an informed democracy.

The Postmaster-General is responsible to Parliament for technical and financial matters, while the Lord President of the Council, in his capacity as Minister responsible for co-ordinating information policy, governs general policy matters.

A White Paper on Broadcasting Policy (Cmd. 6852, July, 1946) dealt with the future of the B.B.C. and announced that the Government had come to the conclusion that to span the period of transition and to enable new technical developments to reach a point at which their bearing on future broadcasting in this country can be more clearly foreseen, the charter and the licence should be renewed, with certain alterations, for five years only, from 1st January, 1947. The Government proposes to consider well in advance of the expiry of this period the desirability of appointing an independent committee to advise on future broadcasting policy.

It has been argued that the existing system places too much power in the hands of a single corporation, and deprives broadcasting of the advantages of healthy competition.

The Government is, however, satisfied that the present system is best suited to the circumstances of the United Kingdom. Where the number of wavelengths to cover a small and densely populated area is so limited that the broadcasting bands are unable to meet the total national requirements and efforts have to be made to develop within other bands by means of frequency modulation, an integrated broadcasting system operated by a public corporation is the only satisfactory means of ensuring that the wavelengths available are used in the best interests of the

community. Co-ordination and the planned application of resources, rather than their dissipation, are, moreover, likely to lead to the greatest advances both in technique and programmes.

To encourage the spirit of competition in broadcasting the corporation is enhancing the status of its individual regional organisations and fostering a spirit of emulation throughout the service.

The number of broadcast receiving licences in force in Great Britain and Northern Ireland at the end of June, 1949, was approximately 11,910,850, including 147,900 television licences.

(d) Services

Service and Wavelengths 1949 1950*	Variations	Particulars
HOME 342.1 m. 330.4 m. 296.2 m. 275.7 m. 449.1 m. 433.5 m. 285.7 m. 285.2 m. 307.1 m. 285.2 m. 216.8 m. 205.9 m. 391.1 m. 370.8 m. 373.1 m. 340.5 m. 285.7 m. 260.6 m.	<i>The Home Services</i> ENGLAND London Region Midland Region North Region West Region SCOTLAND WALES NORTHERN IRELAND	Object : To reflect the life of the community and to satisfy its tastes and mental and spiritual needs Characteristic items : news bulletins, broadcasts to schools, religious services, plays, symphony concerts, brains trusts, music-hall and variety, talks. Today there are seven Home Services Each of these can choose whether to broadcast a programme offered by one of the other Home Services.
1,500 m. 1,500 m. 261.1 m. 274.1 m.	<i>Light Programme</i>	Begun 29th July, 1945. Object : to entertain its listeners and to interest them in the world at large without failing to be entertaining.
514.6 m. 463.7 m. 203.5 m. 194.0 m. (For transmission times, see "Radio Times")	<i>Third Programme</i>	Begun 29th September, 1946. Object : to broadcast without regard to length or difficulty the masterpieces of music, of art and of letters which lend themselves to transmission in sound.
OVERSEAS (For wavelengths and transmission times, see "London Calling")	The Dominions The Colonies The U.S.A. The Far East The Near East Latin America	The Overseas Services are all those services in English and other languages directed to lands beyond Europe. Broadly speaking, the Overseas Services have developed from the original Empire Service, whereas broadcasting to Europe was created more particularly by the needs of recent years.

*Copenhagen wavelengths as from Spring, 1950.

Service and Wavelengths	Variations	Particulars
EUROPEAN (For wavelengths and transmission times, see European Programme Bulletin)	General Overseas Service	1947 saw the General Forces Programme of the war return to its peace-time title of General Overseas Service. This Service, which runs continuously throughout the 24 hours and can be heard at suitable times all over the world, is planned for all those who think of the United Kingdom as home. It still continues to cater for the needs of the Forces serving overseas. There are 18 Forces Broadcasting Stations which relay B.B.C. material to the extent of 450 hours a week.
	West European France, Holland, Belgium, Luxembourg	The European Service broadcasts in 24 languages and has at its disposal 4 networks on which 4 simultaneous transmissions to different parts of Europe can go on the air. Broadly speaking, the standard transmission consists of a half-hour programme containing an objective news bulletin, a short talk or commentary on a political or social problem and its treatment in Great Britain, and a feature. The attempt is made to give a comprehensive idea of the British viewpoint on current events, of the British way of life, and to foster the friendly exchange of knowledge in the interests of international understanding. Daily programmes of "English by Radio" are transmitted. Their chief aim is to provide regular practice in understanding the spoken language.
	German-Austrian	
	Scandinavian Norway, Denmark, Sweden, Finland	
	Central European Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary	
	East European Russia, Greece	
	South European Italy, Spain, Portugal	

News.—There are nine news broadcasts daily, in the Home and Light programmes, including a three-minute summary at 11 p.m. in the Home Service. Home Service transmission times are at 7 a.m., 8 a.m., 1 p.m., 6 p.m., 9 p.m., and Light Programme times are 9 a.m., 7 p.m., and 10 p.m., and a summary at 11.56 p.m. The sources on which B.B.C. news draws are threefold: the agencies, the B.B.C. correspondents, and the B.B.C.'s own monitoring service. News is presented objectively and all editorial opinion and outside influence is avoided.

	Political leanings*	Circulation
London morning		
<i>The Times</i>	Independent	262,035
<i>Daily Express</i>	Independent : Imperialist ..	4,044,111
<i>Daily Mail</i>	Independent Conservative ..	2,201,348
<i>Daily Mirror</i>	Independent : Anti-Conservative	4,390,213
<i>Daily Herald</i>	Labour	2,072,077
<i>Daily Graphic</i>	Conservative	769,163
<i>Daily Telegraph</i>	Conservative	987,986
<i>Daily Worker</i>	Communist	120,052
<i>News Chronicle</i>	Liberal	1,602,960
<i>Financial Times</i>	Independent Conservative ..	60,241
London evening		
<i>Evening News</i>	Independent Conservative ..	1,741,965
<i>Evening Standard</i>	Independent : Imperialist ..	838,655
<i>Star</i>	Liberal	1,214,054
Provincial morning		
<i>Birmingham Post</i>	Conservative	40,323
<i>Liverpool Daily Post</i>	Independent	80,600
<i>Manchester Guardian</i>	Liberal	137,000
<i>Yorkshire Post</i>	Conservative	148,884
<i>Glasgow Herald</i>	Independent Conservative ..	94,639
<i>Scotsman</i>	Conservative	75-80,000
Provincial evening		
<i>Liverpool Echo</i>	Independent	402,482
<i>Manchester Evening News</i>	Liberal	328,626
<i>Yorkshire Evening Post</i>	Conservative	264,550
Sunday		
<i>Sunday Times</i>	Conservative	532,875
<i>Sunday Chronicle</i>	Conservative	1,198,797
<i>Sunday Express</i>	Independent : Imperialist ..	2,734,981
<i>Sunday Dispatch</i>	Independent Conservative ..	2,187,303
<i>Sunday Pictorial</i>	Independent:Anti-Conservative ..	4,734,785
<i>Sunday Graphic</i>	Conservative	1,234,314
<i>Observer</i>	Independent	387,855
<i>People</i>	Labour	4,958,184
<i>News of the World</i>	Independent	8,382,356
<i>Reynolds News</i>	Co-operative	731,633
Weeklies		
<i>Economist</i>	Independent	42,073
<i>Spectator</i>	Independent Conservative ..	45,000
<i>New Statesman & Nation</i>	Socialist	79,985
<i>Tribune</i>	Socialist	18,500
<i>John Bull</i>	Independent	1,075,938

*It should be noted that the word "affiliation" is not used. Where a paper's "leaning" is described as Conservative or Liberal this is intended to convey that the paper in question supports the policy of that party. No more than this should be read into the description. There are three exceptions. The *Daily Worker* is the mouthpiece of the Communist Party, and *Reynolds News* of the Co-operative Movement. The shares of the *Daily Herald* are held as to 51 per cent by Odhams Press Ltd., and as to 49 per cent by the Trades Union Congress, which controls the paper's policy. Elsewhere the unsatisfactory description "Independent" has had to be employed.

(contd.)

Illustrated Weeklies							Circulation
<i>Picture Post</i>	1,407,555
<i>Illustrated</i>	1,129,777
<i>Everybody's</i>	1,003,797
<i>Leader</i>	315,243
<i>Sphere</i>	34,922
<i>Illustrated London News</i>	78,872

In this connexion it may fairly be stated that the British public buys its newspaper mainly for entertainment value, that is for features, sports columns and liveliness in make-up and presentation of news. It is not influenced (or only slightly influenced) by the paper's political views. Witness the General Election of 1945, when the big battalions, Kemsley, Rothermere and Beaverbrook, wielding an enormous circulation of daily, Sunday and evening newspapers in London and the provinces, supported the Conservatives, who none the less lost 173 seats, and opposed the Labour Party, who gained 210.

The following are the best-known groups of ownerships :

- Kemsley Newspapers .. Controlling the *Daily Graphic*, *Sunday Graphic*, *Sunday Times*, *Sunday Chronicle* and some 20 other papers.
- Associated Newspapers .. Controlling the *Daily Mail*, *Evening News*, *Sunday*
(Rothermere) *Dispatch* and some 16 other papers.
- Westminster Press .. Controlling some 43 papers.
(entirely provincial)
- Provincial Newspapers .. Controlling some 15 papers.
(London suburbs and provincial)
- Harmsworth Group .. Controlling some 14 papers.
(south-west provinces)
- Iliffe Group Controlling the *Birmingham Post*, *Mail* and *Weekly Post*, and *Coventry Evening Telegraph*.
- London Express Newspapers Controlling the *Daily Express*, *Sunday Express* and
(generally known as the *Evening Standard*
Beaverbrook Press, but
Lord Beaverbrook is no
longer a director)

To protect the independence and integrity of their papers certain owners (one so long ago as 1911) appointed trustees. While varying in form and detail the trusts all have the same broad purpose, the subjugation of personal profit to public interest.

The papers are : *News Chronicle* (1911)
The Times (1924)
Manchester Guardian (1936)
Spectator (1928)
Economist (1929)

In 1947 a Royal Commission on the Press was appointed to inquire into the finance, control, management and ownership of the Press. Its terms of reference were : " with the object of furthering the free expression of opinion through the Press and the greatest practicable accuracy in the presentation of news to inquire into the control, management and ownership of the newspaper and periodical Press and the news agencies, including the financial structure and the monopolistic tendencies to control, and to make recommendations thereon."

The Royal Commission held its first meeting on 30th April, 1947, and issued its report on 29th June, 1949.

Its recommendations in full were as follows :

1. That the Press should establish a General Council of the Press consisting of at least 25 members representing proprietors, editors, and other journalists, and having lay members amounting to about 20 per cent of the total, including the chairman. The lay members should be nominated jointly by the Lord Chief Justice and the Lord President of the Court of Session, who in choosing the other lay members should consult the chairman. The chairman, on whom a heavy burden of work will fall, should be paid.

The objects of the General Council should be to safeguard the freedom of the Press ; to encourage the growth of the sense of public responsibility and public service among all engaged in the profession of journalism—that is, in the editorial production of newspapers—whether as directors, editors, or other journalists ; and to further the efficiency of the profession and the well-being of those who practise it.

In furtherance of its objects the General Council should take such action as it thinks fit :

- (1) to keep under review any developments likely to restrict the supply of information of public interest and importance ;
- (2) to improve the methods of recruitment, education, and training for the profession ;
- (3) to promote a proper functional relation among all sections of the profession ;
- (4) by censuring undesirable types of journalistic conduct, and by all other possible means, to build up a code in accordance with the highest professional standards. In this connection it should have the right to consider any complaints which it may receive about the conduct of the Press or of any persons towards the Press, to deal with these complaints in whatever manner may seem to it practicable and appropriate, and to include in its annual report any action under this heading ;
- (5) to examine the practicability of a comprehensive pension scheme ;
- (6) to promote the establishment of such common services as may from time to time appear desirable ;
- (7) to promote technical and other research ;
- (8) to study developments in the Press which may tend towards greater concentration or monopoly ;
- (9) to represent the Press on appropriate occasions in its relations with the Government, with the organs of the United Nations, and with similar Press organisations abroad ;
- (10) to publish periodical reports recording its own work and reviewing from time to time the various developments in the Press and the factors affecting them.

2. That powers of inquiry (into membership and control) similar to those of the Board of Trade under sections 172 and 173 of the Companies Act, 1947, should be conferred on the Registrar of Friendly Societies in respect of any societies registered under the Industrial and Provident Societies Acts which publish newspapers or periodicals or engage in the business of a news agency.*

3. That chain newspapers should be required by law to carry on the front page a formula clearly indicating their common ownership.†

4. That if local monopolies in a considerable area whether rural or urban should be found not to be within the purview of the Monopolies Commission, the Monopolies and Restrictive Practices (Inquiry and Control) Act, 1948, should be amended to bring newspaper monopolies in areas of this size within its scope.

5. That the present agreement in the industry to refrain from non-journalistic forms of competition should be prolonged indefinitely.

(b) News Agencies

There are five news agencies, of which only Reuters runs a world-wide service.

Reuters. This world-wide and world-famous agency has since 1941 been owned and operated by the British Press under a trust agreement which guarantees the independence and integrity of the news service. Membership was extended in 1947 to the Australian Associated Press and the New Zealand Press Association and in 1949 to the Press Trust of India.

Press Association, owned by the provincial Press, and itself part-owner with the Newspaper Proprietors' Association (i.e., the London Press) of Reuters.

Exchange Telegraph, closely linked with the Press Association, many services being "joint": has sole Stock Exchange rights.

The *Associated Press* and the *British United Press*, which are extensions of the two principal American news agencies.

* Two newspapers would be affected by this recommendation, the *Daily Worker* and *Reynolds News*

† This is already done by *Kemsley Newspapers*.

V. FOOD AND AGRICULTURE

1. FOOD POLICY

Britain's system of food control will be continued so long as shortages persist. The Ministry of Food continues as a permanent Department and, as the Minister stated on 7th November, 1945, "the Government accept the responsibility for ensuring that adequate supplies of food necessary to health are available to all members of the public at reasonable prices. . . . The Government will retain and adapt those controls which are necessary to the carrying out of such a policy. In regard to all those foods which play an important part in the nation's diet, the Government will undertake such responsibility in respect of procurement, distribution and sale as is necessary to ensure that adequate supplies are available at reasonable prices, and to implement such international agreements on commercial and commodity policy as may be concluded. The interest of the consumers will be protected; provision will be made for the needs of special classes; the position of the home producer in producing the goods required by the nation from home sources will be safeguarded; the trader who renders the community a necessary service will receive a fair reward."

Bulk purchase, as the Minister of Food emphasised in Parliament on 1st July 1947, is an integral part of Britain's general system for the procurement and distribution of foodstuffs in a time of world shortage. It is a very flexible instrument. It may be a direct Government to Government deal or, as it more frequently is, an overall agreement within which the procurement of food may be left to firms working as agents of the Ministry of Food or as free agents within a given quantity.

The average level of food consumption attained in Britain in 1948-9 is shown in the next table :—

FOOD CONSUMPTION IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

	Pre-war Annual Average	1948 (pro- visional)	1948-9 (pro- visional)
(lb. per head per annum)			
Dairy products except butter (milk solids)	38.3	49.0	50.6
Meat (edible weight)	109.6	73.8	69.8
Fish, game, poultry (edible weight)	32.8	37.0	35.4
Eggs and egg products (shell egg equiv.)	24.0	21.4	22.0
Oils and fats (visible) (fat content)	45.3	38.1	40.6
Sugar and syrups (sugar content)	109.9	85.9	91.2
Potatoes	176.0	242.1	266.3
Pulses and nuts	9.6	5.4	6.9
Tomatoes and fruit (fresh equiv.)	141.4	133.2	128.6
Vegetables	107.5	114.7	115.6
Grain products	210.1	250.2	252.8
Beverages (tea, coffee, cocoa)	14.7	13.2	13.5
(daily intake per head)			
Protein—animal (gm.)	42.7	41.0	40.7
vegetable (gm.)	37.2	46.4	47.5
total (gm.)	79.9	87.4	88.2
Fat (from all sources) (gm.)	130.2	107.5	110.0
Carbohydrate (gm.)	337.0	394.1	408.8
Calcium (mg)	693	1,106	1,216
Total energy value (calories)	3,000	2,890	2,980

[Source : Ministry of Food]

Food Subsidies : Prices of the majority of foodstuffs are controlled by Maximum Price Orders. The prices of the main foodstuffs are kept down by Government subsidies, which began in December, 1939. The following table shows the foods being subsidised in November, 1949.

UNITED KINGDOM FOOD SUBSIDIES
at November, 1949

Commodity	Unit	Estimated Subsidy 1949-50 £m's.	Current Average Retail Price per Unit	Subsidy Per Unit
			s. d.	s. d.
Bacon	per lb.	30.2	2 3	1 2
(a) Bread	per 3½ lb. loaf	(c) 64.1	11	6
(a) Flour	per 7 lb.	35.5	1 9	1 1½
Shell Eggs	per dozen	30.7	3 0	1 3½
Carcass Meat .. .	per lb.	40.8	1 5	3
Milk	per quart	51.3	10	2½
(b) Butter	per lb.	53.3	1 6	1 6
(b) Cheese	" "	25.2	1 2	1 0½
Margarine	" "	16.0	10	4½
Lard and Cooking Fat	" "	5.6	1 0	3½
(a) Potatoes	per 7 lb.	14.7	10	2
Sugar	per lb.	8.1	5	1
Tea	" "	15.0	3 4	8½
Fish	" "	4.0		
Sundries	(Credit)	32.2		
Total		362.3		
Welfare Foods—				
Milk in Schools .. .		9.0		
National Milk Scheme		22.0		
Vitamin Foods and National Dried Milk		6.1		
Animal Feeding-stuffs .. .		36.7		
Fertilisers		15.0		
Loss on Potatoes bought under guarantee		11.5		
		462.6		

(a) Includes acreage payments. (b) Includes subsidy on manufacturing milk.

(c) Includes £8.4 m. subsidy payable to bakers.

[Source : Hansard, House of Commons, 1st November, 1949, Col. 43-44]

Sir Stafford Cripps stated in the House of Commons on 3rd November, 1949, that the annual rate of payments being made from this total to reduce the cost of imported food was £183.5 m.
to reduce the cost of home-grown food was £211.3 m.
to reduce the cost of imported feeding-stuffs was £33.8 m.
to reduce the cost of home-grown feeding-stuffs was £2.9 m.
for acreage payments was £16.1 m.
for fertilisers was £15.0 m.

2. AGRICULTURE

(a) Long-Term Policy

Britain's new long-term policy for agriculture echoes on the national level that of the Food and Agricultural Organisation of the United Nations on the international level, for it also aims to develop and organise food production to provide diets on a health standard for the people and to stabilise agricultural prices at levels fair to producers and consumers alike.

The *Agriculture Act* designed to give legislative effect to the Government's long-term agricultural policy became law on 6th August, 1947. This policy, as stated in the Act, is to secure "a stable and efficient agriculture capable of producing such part of the nation's food as in the national interest it is desirable to produce in the United Kingdom, and of producing it at minimum prices consistently with proper remuneration and living conditions for farmers and workers in agriculture and an adequate return on capital invested."

In moving the second reading in the House of Commons on 27th January, 1947, the Minister of Agriculture, Mr. Tom Williams, speaking of the future of Britain's agriculture, said:—

"Planning must have regard to world economic conditions, to national economic policy, and to the technical progress made by agriculture itself . . . the soil and climate in this country are far better suited to produce some commodities than others, particularly livestock and livestock products . . . we are peculiarly fitted in this country to produce protective foods—meat, milk, eggs, vegetables and fruit. Our agricultural system must be well balanced, not only over the country as a whole, but on each individual farm. Recent experience has shown that the ley farming system with mixed farming based on alternate husbandry, is the most effective method of promoting efficient production, while at the same time maintaining the soil in good health.

" . . . As far as one can see ahead, there is still a large and unsatisfied demand for liquid milk and other livestock products. We certainly need appreciably more fresh vegetables and fruit than we had in pre-war days. With a rising standard of consumption in other parts of the world, I doubt if we can rely on importing the pre-war proportion of meat and livestock products. Therefore, we need more stock, which we had to sacrifice for grain during the war. We need more feeding-stuffs, both imported and home-grown, but we cannot plan too rigidly or too far ahead as recent experience has taught us.

" . . . The national slogan in agriculture as elsewhere has to be: 'full efficient production at home for as long as we can possibly foresee.'

" . . . While providing for stability, there must be sufficient flexibility to enable adjustments to be made to meet changing needs.

" . . . We shall rely upon advice and the price mechanism to steer production in the direction desired by national policy, subject to one exception—national emergency . . . "

"The Government's policy" as stated in the *Economic Survey for 1947* "both to save foreign exchange and for good farming, is to switch our production, as rapidly as the cereals position permits, from the production of crops for direct human consumption to the production of livestock and livestock products, especially pigs and poultry. . . .

"The world cereal shortage has delayed this policy. This year (1947) we must still have a large production of wheat, potatoes and sugar-beet, and the target screages are similar to those of 1945."

The general objective, as stated by the Minister of Agriculture on 6th March, 1947, "will be to increase the output of livestock products to the maximum extent consistent with supplies of feeding-stuffs and breeding capacity on dietary, foreign exchange, and good farming grounds."

The Government's agricultural expansion programme, announced in August, 1947, and reaffirmed in the *Economic Survey for 1948*, aims at raising the net output of Britain's agriculture in 1951 about one-fifth, or about £100 millions, above its 1946-7 level, in terms of 1945-6 prices (home prices for final products and import prices for imported feeding-stuffs). This means a 50 per cent increase over pre-war (1936-9 average) production and a 15 per cent increase over the peak war-time output of 1943-4.

More than half the net increase of production is expected to be derived from livestock if the necessary supplies of feeding-stuffs are forthcoming. The objectives set for 1952-3 as percentages of pre-war (1936-9) output are, for milk, 123; for eggs, 131; for beef and veal, 110; for mutton and lamb, 83; and for pigmeat, 92.

It is important to note that the contribution which home agriculture makes to the nation's food supply and the pattern of British agriculture has been governed to a large extent during the war-time emergency by the fact that growers are, for example, required to sell off the farm for human consumption all potatoes fit for that purpose and have only been allowed to retain for stock feeding strictly limited quantities of wheat, barley and rye.

By prohibiting the use and disposal of all such produce for any other purpose, farmers, as a whole, were automatically prevented from producing as many animals and livestock products—particularly small livestock—as they might wish to do (or would otherwise have done in the light of economic considerations such as the stock/crop price ratio) and the individual farmer was—and to some extent still is—precluded from the full exercise of his judgment as regards the best or most profitable system of farm management to pursue on his particular holding. The powers of the Minister of Agriculture to direct production are being retained during the continuance of the emergency (up to 1950 at least), and it is also contemplated that the complementary powers of the Minister of Food in regard to the compulsory disposal of certain products by farmers will likewise continue, with perhaps a progressive relaxation in respect of the proportion of any particular product which the producer is free to retain for use on the farm. Thus growers might retain as much as they wished of their 1949 barley and rye crops.

The long-term policy embodied in the *Agriculture Act*, however, contemplates the abandonment of compulsory directions on farmers as to production and disposal and places reliance on the price mechanism to ensure, by the fine adjustment of price ratios and costs, that home agriculture is not only capable of producing but will in fact provide broadly such part of the food supply as may be desired in the national interest.

(b) The Agriculture Act, 1947

Part I of the *Agriculture Act*, 1947, applies to the whole of the United Kingdom. Further clauses cover Great Britain (those dealing with statistics, the Land Fertility Scheme and contract services).

The *Agriculture (Scotland) Act*, 1948, which received the Royal Assent on 13th July, 1948, is the Scottish counterpart of the remainder of the *Agriculture Act* which applies only to England and Wales.

Part I of the *Agriculture Act* provides for the promotion and maintenance of a stable and efficient agricultural industry through the provision of guaranteed prices and assured markets for growers and producers. It provides for annual reviews of the general economic condition of the agricultural industry as a basis for the fixing of prices, and also provides for special reviews between the annual reviews where there has been a substantial change in the economic position of the industry. It provides for the fixing of prices well in advance so as to enable farmers to plan ahead, and also deals with the fixing of minimum prices and minimum quantities to which those prices relate for livestock and livestock products for from two to four years in advance.

Part II enacts the control measures necessary to ensure that all owners of agricultural land attain a reasonable standard of good estate management and that all farmers attain a reasonable standard of good husbandry.

Where an owner or occupier of agricultural land is not complying with his responsibilities under the rules of good estate management or the rules of good husbandry respectively, the Minister will have power to place him under supervision. Where an owner or occupier has been placed under supervision the Minister may serve on him any directions necessary to make him fulfil his responsibility to manage or farm the land in accordance with the rules of good estate management or good husbandry. No appeals are allowed against supervision orders or (subject to the exception mentioned later) against directions, though the persons concerned will be given an opportunity of appearing before the County Agricultural Executive Committee and making representations. In the case of directions on owners for the provision of fixed equipment, however, an appeal may be made to the Agricultural Land Tribunal, where the estimated reasonable cost of the work is greater than the annual value of the land. The reason for this concession is that the provision of fixed equipment is likely to be one of the most expensive matters which can be required by a direction.

Where an owner or occupier has been placed under supervision and fails, after twelve months, to show satisfactory improvement in his standard of management or husbandry, the Minister is given powers to dispossess him. In the case of an owner, dispossession will be by means of the compulsory purchase of his land, while in the case of the occupier it will be by means of termination of his tenancy. In both cases provision is made for an appeal to the Agricultural Land Tribunal. Where satisfactory arrangements cannot be made for the farming of the land after an occupier has been dispossessed, the Minister may take possession of the land and either farm it himself or let it to a satisfactory tenant. The Minister will remain in possession until the owner can satisfy him that satisfactory alternative arrangements have been made.

Part III deals with the general relationship of landlord and tenant so as to bring the law into line with the new policy and to enable both the landlord and the tenant to fulfil their responsibilities under the rules of good estate management and good husbandry. (A consolidating act, the *Agricultural Holdings Act, 1948*, has since replaced this Part of the 1947 Act without altering its provisions.)

A comprehensive code of compensation from a landlord to a tenant for improvements carried out by him during the period of his tenancy and for compensation from a tenant to a landlord for any deterioration of the holding during the period of the tenancy is laid down. A code of this kind is essential if landlords and tenants are to be encouraged to fulfil their responsibilities for good estate management and good husbandry. The items for which a tenant has a statutory right to claim compensation can be divided broadly into three

classes: (1) long-term improvements, (2) medium-term improvements, and (3) tenant right matters.

The Act confers for the first time on a landlord a statutory right to claim compensation from an outgoing tenant for any damage or deterioration caused to the holding through the tenant failing to comply with his responsibilities to farm in accordance with the rules of good husbandry.

The Act also makes provision for security of tenure for a tenant farmer and deals also with the compensation for disturbance which a tenant shall receive from the landlord when he quits the holding as a result of a valid notice to quit.

To ensure that rents of agricultural holdings are adjusted in accordance with the economic circumstances of the industry either the landlord or the tenant may get the rent of a holding varied by arbitration. In addition, a landlord may obtain an increased rent from his tenant where he has carried out an improvement which has increased the value of the holding.

Part IV of the Act implements the new smallholdings policy which is designed to provide a ladder for agricultural workers to rise to the rank of tenant farmer. Administration of smallholdings will continue to be carried out by County Councils and County Borough Councils who will have a duty to provide smallholdings having regard to the demand from suitable persons and the general interest of agriculture, and subject to the Minister's approval. It is an essential feature of the policy that holdings should be such that they are likely to provide a reasonable livelihood for the tenant and his family.

Smallholdings authorities are empowered to carry out co-operative schemes for the benefit of their smallholdings, and they are required to let smallholdings to people with adequate previous agricultural experience and to give preference, other things being equal, to agricultural workers. In order to make sure that promising and young agricultural workers are not debarred from taking smallholdings owing to inadequate working capital, the Minister is empowered to make loans for this purpose. The Minister is enabled to make contributions up to 75 per cent of the loss incurred by County Councils and County Borough Councils in providing smallholdings.

The Minister is taking over the existing smallholdings estates of the Land Settlement Association and the Welsh Land Settlement Society in return for remitting their debt to the Government, and they will in future run these estates as agents for the Minister.

Part V of the Act deals with the setting up of the administrative organisation for carrying out the general policy; for the collection of agricultural statistics for the planning of the agricultural industry; for general powers of acquisition and management of agricultural land by the Minister; for the service of special directions to all farmers in an emergency; for the continuation of grants for drainage, water supply and lime; and for the control of pests and weeds.

The Act also deals, among other things, with the setting up of an Agricultural Land Commission and a Welsh Sub-Commission to manage land vested in the Minister and the constitution of County Agricultural Executive Committees and Agricultural Land Tribunals.

(c) Farming in the United Kingdom

Although the major part of the population lives and works in urban areas, agriculture remains one of Britain's biggest industries. It utilises some 48 million of the 60 million acres of land in the United Kingdom and provides employment for nearly one and a half million people.

USE OF AGRICULTURAL LAND IN THE UNITED KINGDOM, 1936-49

(Million acres)

June	Land under the plough			Permanent grassland	Total area under crops and grass
	Crops and fallow	Temporary grassland	Total		
1936-8 average	9.0	4.1	13.1	18.7	31.8
1939	8.8	4.1	12.9	18.8	31.7
1943	14.5	4.2	18.7	12.4	31.1
1944	14.5	4.7	19.3	11.7	31.0
1945	13.8	5.3	19.2	11.8	31.0
1946	13.3	5.7	19.0	12.0	31.0
1947	12.9	5.7	18.5	12.4	31.0*
1948	13.2	5.5	18.8	12.4	31.1
1949	12.7	5.7	18.4	12.7	31.1
% change					
1936/8-44	+61	+15	+47	-37	-3
1936/8-49	+41	+39	+40	-32	-2

*Includes 87,000 acres temporarily out of use through flooding.

ACREAGE UNDER CEREALS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM 1936-49

(Million acres)

June	Wheat	Barley	Oats	Mixed Corn and Rye	All Cereals
1936-38 average	1.9	0.9	2.4	0.1	5.3
1939	1.8	1.0	2.4	0.1	5.3
1943	3.5	1.8	3.7	0.6	9.6
1944	3.2	2.0	3.7	0.5	9.4
1945	2.3	2.2	3.8	0.5	8.8
1946	2.1	2.2	3.6	0.5	8.4
1947	2.2	2.1	3.3	0.5	8.1
1948	2.3	2.1	3.4	0.7	8.4
1949	2.0	2.1	3.3	0.8	8.1
% increase					
1936/8-44	68	122	54	400	77
1936/8-49	5	133	37.5	700	53

[Source : Agricultural Departments.]

UNITED KINGDOM ACREAGE TARGETS
(Thousand acres)

	Actual				Target		
	Pre-war*	1946-47	1948-49	1949-50	1950-51	1951-52	1952-53
Bread grains	1,872	2,117	2,340	2,028	2,575	2,805	2,805
Other grains	3,429	6,236	6,016	5,988	6,350	6,450	6,450
Potatoes	723	1,423	1,548	1,309	1,300	1,300	1,300
Sugar Beet	335	436	413	420	400	400	400

*Average, harvest years 1936-38.

[Source : Agricultural Departments]

Production

The value of the gross output of agriculture in the United Kingdom before the war was some £280 million per annum. The net value of agricultural output in the year ended May, 1947, was about 23 per cent above pre-war, and the provisional estimate for the year ended May, 1950, is about 35 per cent over pre-war.

UNITED KINGDOM AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION
(Thousand tons) (June-May Years)

Product	Average 1936-37 to 1938-39	Actual		Esti- mated 1949-50	Programme		
		1947-48	1948-49		1950-51	1951-52	1952-53
Bread grains	1,661	1,689	2,408	2,189	2,495	2,694	2,721
Coarse grains	2,781	4,514	5,508	5,510	5,450	5,540	5,540
Meat and Pigmeat	1,462	888	1,041	1,136	1,212	1,317	1,445
Milk & Milk Products*	7,190	7,838	8,758	8,892	8,786†	8,809†	8,832†
Potatoes	4,873	7,766	11,798	8,861	9,100	9,100	9,100
Sugar Beet (roots)	2,741	2,959	4,319	3,644	3,600	3,600	3,600

*In terms of liquid milk. † May be raised. [Source : Ministry of Agriculture.]

Milk : The quantity of milk sold off in the United Kingdom in the year April, 1948, to March, 1949, amounted to 1,670 million gallons, exceeding the previous year's total by 203 million gallons. The trend towards winter milk production continues. The average yield per cow in 1947-48 rose by 8 per cent above the three-year period 1942-5. The demand for milk still greatly exceeds the available supply for the greater part of the year. The quantities sold through the National Milk Scheme and the Milk in Schools Scheme are responsible for 16 per cent of the total liquid sales.

Livestock : The livestock population of the United Kingdom in June, 1949, numbered 10.2 million cattle, 19.5 million sheep, 2.8 million pigs, and 95.3 million poultry. Dairy cattle had increased by 14 per cent between 1939 and 1946, and other cattle by 5 per cent, but sheep had fallen by 24 per cent, pigs by 55 per cent,

and poultry on agricultural holdings by 9 per cent. The exceptionally severe winter of 1946-7 caused a further loss of over 2 million—about one-eighth of all—sheep and lambs, besides some 50,000 head of cattle. The year 1947-8, however, saw an increase of 277,000 (16 per cent) in the number of calves under one year old, and increases of 9 per cent in the number of sheep, of pigs 32 per cent, and of poultry 22 per cent.

From 1948-9 onwards there should be a marked increase in the output of eggs and pigmeat, but revival of beef and mutton production must necessarily be somewhat slower while flocks and herds are being rebuilt. Home-killed supplies of meat in 1947 averaging 13,800 tons a week contributed nearly 44 per cent of the total supply of carcass meat for consumption in the United Kingdom.

Financial aid, prices and markets

(i) *Financial aid*: The degree of financial aid given to British farmers can only be understood in the light of the activities of the Ministry of Food, which buys the greater part of the output of British farmers either directly or through authorised agents, and which through various channels resells it to consumers. The prices charged to consumers are fixed in such a way as to implement the Government's policy of holding the cost of living steady at a comparatively low figure. These objectives are reconciled through the Ministry of Food's Trading Account, which buys food at one array of prices and resells at another and, in the main, lower array of prices. The loss on the Ministry of Food's Trading Account in respect of home produce approaches £200 million per annum, but this figure includes losses in respect of food welfare schemes such as milk in schools. Not the whole of the loss, even excluding welfare schemes, can be regarded as financial aid to British farmers, since consumers are obtaining their supplies at less than a reasonable estimate of cost.

In addition, a certain number of agricultural improvements subsidies are administered by the Agricultural Departments. These include a grant of £4 per acre on certain classes of grassland ploughed up before 31st December, 1949, subsidies on hill sheep and hill cattle, grants up to 50 per cent towards the cost of field drainage and ditching schemes and farm water supplies, 50 per cent for the rehabilitation of hill farming land, and livestock improvement subsidies. Agricultural lime is also supplied at half cost, and other classes of fertilisers are subject to a price stabilisation policy, with the resulting losses borne on the accounts of the Board of Trade.

The Government has initiated a programme of grassland development and provides financial assistance for co-operative grass drying as part of the agricultural expansion programme.

(ii) *Prices and Markets*: The four aims of price control are (a) to give the farmers a reasonable return; (b) to encourage production of crops required by the Government; (c) to ensure the availability of a product at the time of year when it is especially needed (e.g. winter milk); and (d) to discourage wasteful forms of production (e.g. special fattened livestock). There are guaranteed prices and markets for all important farm products on the basis of adequate returns. These are fixed by the Government for each season, in some cases for longer periods, and the farmers are guaranteed an assured market. All fat stock and some farm crops, including potatoes, are bought by the Ministry of Food or its authorised buyers.

Milk is marketed through the Milk Marketing Board for the Ministry of Food.

Manpower

During and immediately after the war the agricultural labour force received a temporary increase in the form of prisoner-of-war labour, but all prisoners except

some 15,000 who are staying on as ordinary civilian farm workers had been repatriated by the end of 1948. Their loss has been partly offset by the recruitment of a number of foreign workers (Poles and European Volunteer Workers). Steps are also being taken—so far successfully—to attract and retain enough suitable British workers to reverse the long-term decline in the labour force and to see that the industry is manned up to the level demanded by the agricultural expansion programme; and by the end of 1948 the total number of men and women (excluding prisoners of war) engaged in agriculture and forestry in Great Britain had increased by about $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent since December, 1947, $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent since mid-1945, and 20 per cent since mid-1939.

The *Women's Land Army* is to continue in being until November, 1950. Its strength in Great Britain in July, 1949, was 16,067.

Mechanisation

The best prospect of satisfying the industry's manpower problems, in view of the overall shortage of manpower, lies in the further increase of output per man-year. Mechanisation has been the most important cause of the substantial increase in the productivity of labour on the land in recent years—output per man-year is estimated to have risen during the war by 10 to 15 per cent.

Britain is one of the most highly mechanised countries in the world in proportion to agricultural acreage. More than five times as much machinery is being supplied to farms in Britain as before the war. The agricultural programme requires the supply to the home market of agricultural machinery to the value of some £50 million per annum until at least 1950-1. Most of this supply will be home-produced, as is already over five-sixths of Britain's agricultural machinery. Some 9,000 combined harvester-threshers were in use in 1949.

Development is stimulated by the testing, research and advisory work carried out by the *National Institute of Agricultural Engineering* established in 1942. Dairy engineering, testing and investigational work are a responsibility of the *National Institute for Research in Dairying*. In 1948 there were about 272,180 tractors on farms in the United Kingdom besides many other modern agricultural machines.

Veterinary Care

All dairy herds are subject to official veterinary inspection at least once a year; many herds are inspected more frequently. Two hundred and twelve thousand herd inspections were carried out during the year 1948.

The diseases mainly responsible for losses in dairy herds are being dealt with by three voluntary schemes.

Tuberculosis is at present being attacked by the establishment of tubercle-free herds under the *Tuberculosis (Attested Herds) Scheme, 1938*. All herds which have passed two consecutive tuberculin tests without a reactor are eligible for an official test under the scheme. If the herd passes this test, its owner is granted a Certificate of Attestation on condition that he observes certain rules designed to prevent reinfection of the herd from outside sources. The herd then receives official periodic tests (normally once a year) to ensure that freedom from tuberculosis is maintained. The great majority of attested herds are dairy herds.

At the end of March, 1949, there were 14,265 attested herds in England, 12,723 in Wales, and 11,323 in Scotland; the number of cattle in attested herds was over 1½ million (England 707,000, Wales 259,000, Scotland 549,000).

A tentative plan for the eradication of tuberculosis on an area basis is now under discussion with farming interests.

Contagious Abortion can be controlled by vaccination, and under the *Calfood Vaccination Scheme* heifer calves in dairy herds and attested herds can be vaccinated

at the very low charge to the farmer of one shilling per calf. Three hundred and three thousand calves were vaccinated during the year 1948.

The Scheme for the Control of Disease of Dairy Cattle enables a farmer, on payment of a flat rate fee, to obtain advice and treatment from his veterinary surgeon for *mastitis, contagious abortion, sterility and Johne's disease*. The State provides, for herds in the scheme, a free laboratory service for diagnosis, and free or inexpensive materials for treatment.

The future of this scheme, which was introduced during the war (in June, 1942) is under consideration.

(d) England and Wales

The types of farming carried on in England and Wales vary widely with the differences of soil and climate, from the arable farming of the fertile plains of East Anglia and Lancashire to the grazing and dairying on the Midland pastures and the hill-sheep farming of Wales and the North of England. The Land Utilization Survey carried out between 1931 and 1938 distinguished no fewer than seventeen main types of farming in different areas of England and Wales. Dairying predominates, for it is at least of substantial importance on nearly half the farms and over nearly half the cultivated area.

The 24·2 million acres of land in England and Wales that is cultivated under crops or grass in holdings of upwards of five acres of crops and grass are divided among 290,600 separate holdings.* Nearly three-quarters of these holdings, covering 30 per cent of the total area, are under 100 acres in extent of crops and grass, while just over one-quarter are over 100 acres and together account for 70 per cent of the total area of crops and grass.

Administration: Agricultural policy is carried out under the Minister through County Agricultural Executive Committees appointed by the Minister which include representatives of landowners, farmers and farm workers. An official of the Ministry links each Committee with Headquarters. The Committees are represented in areas within the county by District Committees. The Committees were re-formed in 1948 and are made a permanent institution by the *Agriculture Act*.

Manpower: The total number of agricultural workers in England and Wales in June, 1949, is provisionally put at:—

	(000)			(000)
Regular, male ..	526·1		Regular male ..	471
„ female ..	55·8		„ female ..	40
Casual, male ..	104·9	The comparable figures for June, 1939, were:	Casual, male ..	63
„ female ..	47·3		„ female ..	33
Women's Land Army ..	11·2			
Total ..	745·3		Total ..	607

Voluntary Effort: Volunteer Agricultural Camps for adults provided a record total of over 161,000 weeks' work on the land in 1948, and School and other Junior Camps another 39,639 weeks' work. Weeks worked by adults in camp in 1949 will probably total 125,000.

Agencies set up by the Ministry of Agriculture and numerous non-official organisations assist the public in the cultivation of small holdings.

Wages: The national minimum agricultural wage in England and Wales was raised in March, 1949, to 94s. per week of 47 hours for men and to 71s. for women.

* i.e., parcels of land in individual occupation and "farmed" as single units. In many cases these holdings are made up of two or more parcels of land for which separate agricultural returns are made.

Progressive increases have raised the wage level for men 171 per cent above the average minimum wage paid in 1939.

Mechanisation : Tractors in use in January, 1948, numbered 231,280, compared with 179,850 in 1946, and tractor ploughs numbered 250,070. Combined harvester-threshers numbered 4,970 in January, 1948, compared with 3,250 in 1946.

Land Reclamation and Preservation

(i) *Drainage and Water* : The estimated cost of land drainage schemes approved for State-aid up to 31st March, 1949, was as follows :—

- Farm Drainage (since 1940)—£15½ millions.
- Main Arterial Drainage (since 1937)—nearly £10 millions
- Main Rivers (since 1930)—over £22½ millions.
- Farm Water Supply (since 1941)—over £7½ millions.

During the year ended 31st March, 1949, the value of schemes approved was as follows :—

- Farm Drainage—just over £2 millions.
- Main Arterial Drainage—nearly £1½ millions.
- Main Rivers—nearly £3 millions.
- Farm Water Supply—nearly £1½ millions.

The *Agriculture Act* will further enable the State to take over and to apply capital directly to land likely otherwise to be left to yield less than its full potential for lack of the capital necessary for major works of drainage or reclamation.

(ii) The *Agricultural Land Service* has been formed (1948) for work in connection with the acquisition and management of agricultural land ; advice on estate management ; measures to ensure good estate management and good husbandry ; advice on the agricultural aspects of town and country planning and on the release of agricultural land for non-agricultural development, including afforestation ; the provision and management of smallholdings by smallholdings authorities ; the provision of allotments by local authorities, and other duties including schemes for farm water supplies and field drainage.

Quality Milk Schemes and National Milk Records

Quality Milk Schemes are in operation in England and Wales as follows :—

(a) Herds producing *Tuberculin Tested Milk* in accordance with the Milk (Special Designations) Regulations are subjected to a periodical test for tuberculosis, and animals reacting to the test must immediately be removed. These herds must also undergo a general veterinary inspection twice a year, and animals showing any signs of disease which may affect the milk injuriously must immediately be segregated from the rest of the herd, or removed, as the case may require.

(b) Herds producing *accredited milk* in accordance with the same regulations are subject to a similar veterinary inspection at regular intervals, but do not have to undergo a test for tuberculosis.

Licences to use these Special Designations are issued by the Ministry of Agriculture under the *Food and Drugs (Milk and Dairies) Act, 1944*. The conditions of both types of licence require the producer to satisfy the licensing authority as to his arrangements for producing milk, including the structure and cleanliness of buildings, cleanliness of milking arrangements and sterilisation of utensils ; and as to the keeping quality of his milk as judged by the results of laboratory tests.

The encouragement to farmers to participate in the Quality Milk Schemes is provided by the premiums payable. These are 1d. per gallon on all milk sold from attested herds, and for "Accredited" and "T.T." 1½d. and 4d. per gallon respectively (slightly different rates for milk sold direct to consumers by farmers).

The following figures show the increase in the total number of herds in receipt of quality premiums :—

	1st March, 1948	1st March, 1949
Accredited only	20,370	19,513
Accredited and Attested	963	933
Tuberculin Tested	5,564	6,195
Tuberculin Tested and Attested . . .	9,362	12,546
Attested only	8,353	9,477
	<hr/> 44,612	<hr/> 48,664

The *Milk (Special Designations) Act*, May, 1949, in force from October, 1949, seeks to secure a safe milk supply throughout Great Britain. It enables the Minister of Food to specify areas in which no milk may be sold by retail except under one of five special designations ("T.T." Farm Bottled ("T.T." milk bottled on the farm), "T.T.", "Accredited" from a single herd, "Pasteurised," and "Sterilised." The Scottish equivalent of "Accredited" is "Standard").

"Accredited" and "Standard" will only be recognised as special designations of milk during the five years following the coming into operation of the Act.

It is intended to achieve a safe milk supply mainly by extending pasteurisation facilities. The Government may install and operate plants or arrange for local authorities to do so.

National Milk Records: Over 20,000 farmers take part in the National Milk Records Scheme organised by the Milk Marketing Board with financial aid from the Ministry of Agriculture. Fees charged to members cover the larger part of the cost. In January, 1949, 20 per cent of all cows in milk-selling herds in England and Wales were recorded.

Scientific Research and Guidance

(i) *Organisations*: The *Agricultural Research Council* is the State Department responsible for fundamental research. In June, 1941, the *Agricultural Improvement Council* was set up for the application of scientific investigation to farming practice, and in July, 1944, it was established on a more permanent basis.

A *National Agricultural Advisory Service* was set up on 1st October, 1946, under the *Agriculture (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act*, July, 1944.

The new Service is co-ordinated and directed from headquarters. Advice on agricultural economics continues to be provided by staffs attached to universities and colleges, and veterinary investigation officers come under the veterinary service of the Ministry. Apart from this, the national service includes all those concerned with advisory work to farmers at the Provincial Centres and in the counties. This will facilitate general direction and guidance, stimulation of activity, securing of greater uniformity in the work, and co-ordination of specialist and general advisory activities. The work of the C.A.E.C.s and the Advisory Service will be closely integrated with a view to the maximum efficiency of the industry.

The Poultry Advisory Service previously established (which covered other small livestock as well as poultry) has been absorbed into the new Service.

A programme of experimental work is being drawn up under the guidance of the Agricultural Improvement Council for England and Wales, and steps are being taken to set up a series of experimental farms and horticultural stations throughout the country.

The Ministry's livestock improvement policy is aided by an advisory *Livestock Improvement Committee*, while the *Horticultural Liaison Group* brings together horticulturalists and representatives of the Ministry to discuss problems of horticultural production. The *Small Pig Keepers' Council* and the *Domestic Poultry*

Keepers' Council, also promoted by the Ministry, encourage domestic pig and poultry keepers respectively, especially in the use of edible waste for feeding.

(ii) *Artificial Insemination*. A Central Advisory Committee on Artificial Insemination guides the development of artificial insemination of cattle. An increasing number of grant-aided centres are operating under the Milk Marketing Board and other organisations. The Ministry maintains two research centres with sub-centres.

(iii) *A National Farm Survey of England and Wales* was carried out in 1941-3 to collect information of all kinds from every farm of five acres and over. The results are summarised in a report published in August, 1946 (H.M.S.O., 2s.).

(iv) *Fertilisers*: The bulk of nitrogenous fertilisers is home produced and suffices for most farmers' needs. Raw materials for phosphatic fertilisers are largely imported, while potassic fertilisers are almost exclusively of foreign origin.

(v) *Seeds*: The National Institute of Agricultural Botany has established a special committee to organise and co-ordinate the home growing of seeds.

(c) Scotland

Farming is Scotland's largest single industry, employing over 90,000 regular workers, besides nearly 40,000 farmers, including smallholders.

There are three main branches of agriculture in Scotland, dependent upon the distinct character of three areas. These are, broadly, arable farming with livestock rearing and fattening along the East and North-East Coast; dairying in the South-West; and in the Highlands and Islands hill sheep and cattle farming and "crofting"—the cultivation of hereditary family smallholdings.

Acreage and Crops: Of Scotland's 19 million acres only about 4½ million are tillable; of the rest 11 million acres are rough hill grazings, while a good part of the remainder is mountain land capable of supporting little but deer and game. Scottish acreages under crops increased by 22 per cent between 1939 and 1949, from 1.48 million acres to 1.80 million acres, and in 1949 approximately 41 per cent of the total crops and grass area was under crops.

The chief crop is oats, to which over 930,000 acres were sown in 1949. Root crops for stock feeding cover the next largest acreage, and potatoes, especially seed potatoes, and barley are important crops. For climatic reasons the area under wheat is small.

Administration is one of the responsibilities of the Secretary of State for Scotland, who controls food production through the Department of Agriculture. In November, 1947, the 41 war-time Agricultural Executive Committees were disbanded, and their powers and duties were transferred to 11 Agricultural Executive Committees set up earlier in that year in anticipation of the *Agriculture (Scotland) Act, 1948* (Royal Assent, 13th July, 1948). These Committees take an active part in the implementation of the Government's post-war agricultural policy.

Mechanisation: In January, 1948, Scotland was using 29,900 tractors (over 6,000 more than in 1946) and 260 combined harvester-threshers (50 more than in 1946), besides increased numbers of many other types of agricultural machine.

Manpower: The total number of agricultural workers at June, 1949, was 107,000, including 900 members of the Women's Land Army, 89,300 other regular workers (75,000 male and 14,300 female), and 16,500 casual workers (10,800 male and 5,700 female).

(f) Northern Ireland

Farming is the largest single industry in Northern Ireland. The country is intensively cultivated in small farms, though there is a tendency for both fields and farms to become gradually fewer and larger. There are over 90,000 agricultural

holdings of over one acre; of these 82 per cent are farms of under 50 acres. Something like 79,000 of the holdings are family farms: that is to say, all the varied work on the farm is done personally by the owner and members of his family.

Acreage, Crops and Produce: The total acreage under crops in 1949 was 1.0 million acres, an increase of over 15 per cent on 1939. The total of 3 million acres of agricultural land in Northern Ireland in 1949 included 2.3 million acres under crops and pasture.

The system of farming is rotational. The principal crops grown are potatoes, oats, flax, and ryegrass for seed. Normally something like 80 per cent of the total agricultural income is derived from livestock and livestock products.

Among other things Northern Ireland sent to Great Britain in the year ended 31st March, 1949—

		Value.
Eggs	384,096,000	£6,975,000
Poultry	15,964,000 lb.	£2,273,000
Fat Cattle and Sheep	165,100 head	£7,218,000
Seed Potatoes (season ended July, 1949) . . .	161,483 tons*	£1,615,000
Ware Potatoes (season ended July, 1949) ..	109,523 tons	£986,009
Ryegrass Seed (season ended July, 1949) ..	16,000 tons*	£1,233,000
Apples (season ended May, 1949)	19,000 tons	£827,000

*Includes shipments to other countries.

Before the 1939-45 war, the total yearly sales of milk off farms amounted to something like 40,000,000 gallons. Of this, 15,000,000, or only 37 per cent, were consumed as liquid milk. Today, production has jumped to 78,000,000 gallons per annum, with 43,500,000 gallons going for liquid consumption.

Administration in food production matters in Northern Ireland is carried out by the Northern Ireland Ministry of Agriculture under powers delegated by the Home Secretary. The Ministry also acts as agent for the Ministry of Food in the purchase and slaughter of all fat cattle, sheep and pigs and the supply to butchers of their rationed meat, and also buys on behalf of the Ministry of Food all eggs and milk, and controls the sale and processing of them.

Mechanisation: In 1949, there are approximately 14,000 tractors in use on farms in Northern Ireland.

Manpower: The total number of persons employed in agriculture at June, 1948, was 168,413, including 59,582 owners of farms, 26,666 owners' wives engaged on farm work, 52,627 other members of farmers' families and 29,538 hired workers. Of the workers other than owners or their wives, 52,627 were full-time and 20,838 part-time workers. Of all those engaged in agriculture, 113,503 were men or boys and 54,910 women or girls.

3. FORESTRY

"The Government consider that well-planned afforestation represents a sound national investment. . . ." (The Minister of Agriculture, 30th November, 1945).

The Forestry Commission was established under the *Forestry Acts, 1919-1947*, to promote the interests of forestry, the development of afforestation and the production and supply of timber in Great Britain.

Progress, 1919-39: By 1939 the Commission had acquired an extensive Forest Estate covering, with the Crown woodlands, 1,144,000 acres of land of which 714,000 acres had been classified as plantable. 434,000 acres were under woodlands and plantations. Of these 369,000 acres had been planted (excluding replacements of less than 8,000 acres) and the rest had been acquired by purchase or by transfer from other Government Departments. In addition, there were 59,000 acres of agricultural and (16,000 acres in 1,471 forest workers' holdings and 43,000 acres

in farms) and 1,000 acres under nurseries. Three National Parks had been established.

World War II: The Commission's war-time policy with regard to the forests committed to its charge was threefold: firstly, provision of timber according to national needs; secondly, protection and maintenance of all plantations not likely to be felled; and, finally, planting to the extent that labour and other limiting factors permitted.

Plans worked out before the war were put into operation immediately hostilities began. The Commission's organisation was divided into two main sections, the Timber Supply Department, working under the Timber Controller in the Ministry of Supply, and the Forest Management Department, dealing with the normal activities of the Commission. This arrangement continued until 1st February, 1941, when by Order in Council (Defence Regulation No. 67a) The Timber Supply Department was transferred to the Ministry of Supply.

The Commission was able to hand over to the Ministry's newly formed Timber Production Department a well-organised, vigorous and expanding undertaking. In the first 17 months of the war, employment in home timber production was roughly trebled and the rate of production increased roughly fivefold. The most striking increase was in the production of mining timber, which, relatively to sawn timber, requires less labour. Large orders were placed for sawing machinery, transport and plant generally, and considerable quantities had been delivered and were in operation by the end of the period. The Newfoundland Forest Unit was brought over at the end of 1939 and beginning of 1940, and set to work in stands of timber already acquired. After the fall of France a number of companies of Royal Engineers, British, Australian, and New Zealand, were brought to England, equipped for timber production and rapidly set to work. At the same time arrangements were made for large-scale assistance from Canada: a large number of companies of the Canadian Forestry Corps began work in Britain at the end of 1940. Much attention was also paid to the development of output by the home timber trade.

At the same time active attention was given to the provision of stocks of young trees for planting. In 1944 stocks of seedlings were about 225 millions, and of transplants, 76 millions. The nursery area was enlarged from 1,000 to 1,550 acres for these and to provide space for the large sowing programme.

Post-war Policy. Post-war policy, with its programme of extensive new afforestation, together with replanting, is based on the need to replenish reserves of standing timber as soon as possible. The main report of the Forestry Commissioners, Cmd. 6447, was published in June, 1943, and set forth a policy and 50-year programme. It emphasised the importance of having a single Forest Authority. The supplementary report on *Private Woodlands*, Cmd. 6500, January, 1944, proposed the Dedication Scheme for private woodlands that has been subsequently put into operation.

Forestry Act, 1945. This Act received the Royal Assent on 15th June, 1945. Its main purpose was to prepare for the development of forestry by securing ministerial responsibility for forestry policy. Under the Act the Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries and the Secretary of State for Scotland became jointly responsible for forestry policy. The Forestry Commission was retained as a single executive body responsible directly to Ministers for carrying out all silvicultural operations, including the training of foresters, research and the management of forest holdings, and generally for giving advice on forestry policy.

Programme: The post-war programme is designed to secure an increase of Britain's forest area from three to five million acres of productive woodlands over a period of fifty years. The annual yield from these five million acres would be equal to about 35 per cent of the national timber requirement contrasted with 4 per cent before World War II. The Post-War Policy Report calculated that five million

acres of forest would be required to ensure national safety and to provide a reasonable insurance against future stringency in world supplies. It was estimated that this total acreage of effective forest could be secured by the afforestation of three million acres of bare ground and the bringing into full production of an existing two million acres of woodlands, a big proportion of which is in private ownership. It is hoped that 1,100,000 acres will be planted in the first ten years of the post-war programme, 200,000 of them by private owners under the dedication scheme. During the first five forest years 1947-51, it is planned to afforest or replant about 365,000 acres in all.

Commission's Forest Area: The total area of land acquired through the Forestry Fund since the establishment of the Commission in 1919 was, by the end of September, 1948, 1,477,000 acres. The area included 916,700 acres of forest land planted or yet to be planted and 560,000 acres of other land (including forest nurseries, Forest Workers' Holdings, agricultural land, and unplantable and miscellaneous land). Of the forest land 369,600 acres are situated in England, 391,300 acres in Scotland, and 149,600 acres in Wales. The number of forest units was 322. In the year 1947-8 36,050 acres of forest land were acquired. Of these 8,600 acres in England, 5,600 in Scotland, and 15,800 in Wales were plantable.

Dedication Scheme for Private Woodlands: The Forestry Act, 1947, an Act to provide for the dedication of land to forestry purposes in return for State assistance in the form of both advice and grants, received the Royal Assent on 27th March, 1947. Under the scheme as now operating a private owner undertakes that his woodlands will be devoted to timber production for all time and be managed in accordance with a plan agreed with the Forestry Commission. In return he may choose one of two forms of financial assistance: he may elect to receive 25 per cent of his net approved annual expenditure, or initial planting grants of £10 per acre planted or replanted, with maintenance grants of 3s. 4d. per acre per year for 15 years.

By the end of June, 1948, 921 private owners, who between them held 503,000 acres of woodlands, had intimated their willingness to consider dedication. By the end of the year only one scheme, relating to an area of 1,006 acres, was fully accepted. A further 13 schemes, involving a total of 10,000 acres, were awaiting completion.

Planting Progress: The area planted during the year 1947-8 was 36,404 acres, which was 10,048 more than that planted in the previous year.

In England 14,125 acres were planted, in Scotland 16,198 acres, and in Wales 6,081 acres. The planted area included 8,900 acres replanted; this meant that the work of replanting woodlands felled during the war, or in the inter-war years, proceeded more quickly than was originally intended.

The total area under nurseries at the end of September, 1948, was 2,158 acres, stocked with 417 million seedlings and 144 million transplants. Some 303 acres had been added during the year.

Timber Production: The Commissioners' woodlands provide a great variety of produce, including saw timber, telegraph and transmission poles, pit props, posts and stakes and wood for pulping and wallboarding.

During the year 1946-7, 28,590 acres of plantation were thinned, an increase of nearly 15,000 acres over the previous year.

The year's income from all classes of forest produce was £905,315.

Planting Grants: The Commissioners assist planting by local authorities and private owners by means of grants pending full operation of the Dedication Scheme.

During the year 1947-8, under the Interim Planting Grants Scheme, plantations amounting to 10,184 acres were inspected and approved. Of this area, 6,898 acres were planted, representing an increase of 3,239 acres over the previous year. In

progress was made in England. The census disclosed a total area of 1,024,000 acres of private or corporately owned woodland in Scotland and of 224,000 in Wales. Of this woodland, the proportion classified under the combined heads of felled, devastated, and scrub, was 64 per cent in Scotland and 47 per cent in Wales; the corresponding figure for England is provisionally estimated at 33 per cent.

National Forest Parks

Since 1936 the Forestry Commissioners have brought into being six National Forest Parks, and their policy is to create others as opportunities arise. The Parks already formed vary considerably in extent and in the nature of the country they occupy, but the principle underlying the establishment of each is the same. This is, that where land is acquired for afforestation in regions of exceptional national beauty, it shall be made available for public access and enjoyment in so far as the requirements of timber production permit. The Parks established to date are: Scotland—Argyll, Glen Trool and Glen More; England—Forest of Dean and Hardknott (Cumberland), Wales—Snowdonia.

4. FISHERIES

Vigorous steps have been taken to increase home fish supplies. The progress made since the end of the war towards restoring Britain's fishing industry by the release of men and boats called up or requisitioned for war service, by the building of new boats and by the sweeping of minefields on fishing grounds is reflected in the catches landed. In 1948, a much smaller fleet than in 1938 landed considerably more edible fish, when allowance is made for the quantities now landed headless.

WET FISH LANDED IN GREAT BRITAIN

TABLE I

1948

England and Wales		Scotland		Great Britain	
Weight ('000 cwt.)	Value (£'000)	Weight ('000 cwt.)	Value (£'000)	Weight ('000 cwt.)	Value (£'000)
14,440	33,810	6,407	11,608	20,847	45,418

TABLE II

1938-49

Six months, January - June, 1938					
6,879	5,795	2,392	1,824	9,271	7,619
Six months, January - June, 1949					
6,218	14,483	2,597	4,860	8,815	19,343

Even before the end of the war in Europe the Admiralty had released as many as could be spared of the requisitioned fishing vessels. At the end of the war releases were accelerated and high priority given to the reconversion of vessels for fishing.

The trawler fleet which is responsible for the bulk of the landings of British-caught fish was thus increased from 465 vessels in May, 1945, to 750 by March, 1946, compared with nearly double this number before the war. By the end of 1948 the number of trawlers based on ports in England and Wales had risen to 844 and to 260 in Scotland. In addition, some 577 drifters and 450 seiners have contributed to the total production. British owners have already started on an extensive trawler-building programme of vessels of modern design, over 100 such vessels will be added to the fleet by 1952.

The clearance of minefields has given fishing vessels greatly increased scope for operations in all areas. The greater part of the North Sea is now open to fishing with the exception of relatively narrow areas along its eastern edge.

An extensive area remains to be cleared between the Faroes and Iceland, but this does not interfere with fishing operations. All areas to the S.W. of Ireland and off the Butt of Lewis are now cleared. The East Anglian herring fleets are now able to function without restriction.

The Inshore Fishing Industry Act, 1945*, gave financial encouragement to inshore fishermen similar to that already extended to fishermen in the herring industry by the *Herring Industry Act, 1944*. The amounts available for both purposes were largely increased by the *White Fish and Herring Industries Act, 1948*.

The *Inshore Fishing Industry Act* empowers the Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries and the Secretary of State for Scotland to assist financially persons engaged in the inshore fishing industry or desiring to engage therein, in particular former inshore fishermen and ex-Servicemen.

Assistance may be given by way of loans and grants in connection with the acquisition, improvement or reconditioning of boats and equipment.

Fisheries research : The Fisheries Departments' scientific staffs are engaged on programmes of marine research which, among other things, deal with problems of the distant water fisheries in the Arctic Circle, over-fishing in the North Sea and related areas, pelagic fisheries for herrings, pilchards and sprats, investigation of oyster breeding and other shell fisheries, and work on salmon and freshwater fisheries.

An International Conference on Overfishing was held in 1946 and meetings of the Advisory Committee appointed by the Conference were held in London in 1947. Recommendations to which effect has already been given by Britain include minimum sizes for immature fish and the taking of powers to limit fishing to the North Sea.

Whaling : With the resumption in 1946-7 by the British Whaling Companies of direct control over the Antarctic whaling fleet, which had been organised by the Government during the first post-war whaling season of 1945-6, the pre-war pattern of whaling re-emerged. The rebuilding of the Antarctic whaling fleet, which had suffered a total loss during the war, continued; and in the 1946-7 season, of the four British ships which participated, two had been completed immediately prior to the opening of the season, and a third had been built for the 1945-6 season. For the seasons 1946-7 and 1947-8, whaling was permitted by International Agreement for four months, instead of the pre-war three months, but the catch was limited to 16,000 blue whale units in the interests of the conservation of the whale stocks.

Herring Industry : The progress of the British herring industry and the programme up to 1952 are shown in the annual report of the Herring Industry Board for

*The inshore fishing industry means "the business of catching and landing in Great Britain fish, including shell fish, found in the sea by means of fishing boats not exceeding 70 feet in length and not exceeding 50 tons gross tonnage."

the year ended 31st March, 1949 (Cmd. 7762), and are summarised in the following table :—

HERRING LANDED IN THE UNITED KINGDOM BY BRITISH VESSELS
(Thousand Crans)

	Actual		Target			
	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952
Home Market ..	832	809	855	900	950	998
Export	342	573	629	764	880	905
Miscellaneous* ..	44	77	175.5	275.8	426	826
Total	1,218	1,459	1,659.5	1,939.8	2,256	2,729

*Mainly meal, oil and by-products.

Note : 1 cran = 37½ imperial gallons = reputedly, 28 stones = 3½ cwt.

APPENDIX 1

POPULATION

1. ESTIMATED TOTAL POPULATION OF THE UNITED KINGDOM at 31st DECEMBER, 1948*

	<i>Total</i>	<i>Males</i>	<i>Females</i>
United Kingdom ..	50,213,000	24,363,000	25,851,000
England and Wales ..	43,676,000	21,187,000	22,489,000
Scotland	5,172,000	2,507,000	2,666,000
Northern Ireland ..	1,365,000	669,000	696,000

AGE GROUPS (Thousands)

AGE	UNITED KINGDOM		ENGLAND AND WALES		SCOTLAND		NORTHERN IRELAND	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
	24,363	25,851	21,187	22,489	2,507	2,666	669	696
0-4	2,207	2,099	1,897	1,802	238	229	72	68
5-9	1,754	1,688	1,484	1,425	204	201	66	62
10-14	1,688	1,631	1,428	1,380	203	197	57	54
15-19	1,697	1,661	1,441	1,411	200	195	56	55
20-24	1,835	1,789	1,571	1,530	203	200	61	59
25-29	2,012	1,982	1,754	1,744	201	181	57	57
30-34	1,734	1,748	1,524	1,535	163	161	47	52
35-39	1,944	1,972	1,715	1,732	186	194	43	46
40-44	1,880	1,930	1,669	1,692	173	194	38	44
45-49	1,676	1,810	1,481	1,587	163	184	32	39
50-54	1,392	1,639	1,232	1,440	131	165	29	34
55-59	1,226	1,482	1,081	1,305	118	146	27	31
60-64	1,070	1,330	942	1,172	101	129	27	29
65-69	894	1,146	784	1,015	86	106	24	25
70 and over	1,353	1,944	1,184	1,719	136	184	33	41

*Estimates refer to the total population, including members of the forces serving overseas and merchant seamen at sea.

2. BIRTH AND DEATH RATES

Year	Birth Rate per 1,000 of Population			Death Rate per 1,000 of Population		
	England and Wales	Scotland	Northern Ireland	England and Wales	Scotland	Northern Ireland
1938	15.1	17.7	20.0	11.6	12.6	13.7
1939	14.9	17.4	19.5	12.1	12.9	13.5
1940	14.5	17.1	19.6	13.9	14.9	14.6
1941	14.1	17.5	20.9	12.8	14.7	15.2
1942	15.6	17.6	22.9	11.5	13.3	13.3
1943	16.2	18.4	24.2	11.9	14.0	13.4
1944	17.5	18.5	23.5	11.6	13.6	12.8
1945	16.1	16.9	22.0	11.4	13.2	12.3
1946	19.2	20.3	22.6	11.5*	13.1	12.5
1947	20.5	22.0	23.3	12.0*	12.9	12.6
1948	17.9*	17.4	21.9	10.8*	11.8	11.2

*Provisional figures.

3. MARRIAGES REGISTERED IN THE UNITED KINGDOM (Thousands)

Year	UNITED KINGDOM	ENGLAND AND WALES	SCOTLAND	NORTHERN IRELAND
1935-8*	403.3	356.3	38.2	8.8
1943	344.8	296.4	38.2	10.2
1944	349.2	302.7	37.0	9.5
1945	456.7	397.6	48.6	10.5
1946	441.1	385.6	45.8	9.7
1947	455.1	401.2	44.4	9.5
1948	446.2	393.1	43.8	9.5

*Averages for 4 years.

[Source : Registrars-General.]

The Royal Commission on Population, appointed in June, 1944, to consider British population trends and make recommendations on population policy, reported in June, 1949.* It found that in spite of increased birth-rates since 1941, the average size of family, on which the long-term population trend depends, appeared to have remained constant for the last 25 years at about 2.2—6 per cent below the size needed to maintain a stable population at present death rates. Increased family allowances and various other measures to remove economic and social deterrents to parenthood were therefore recommended.

*Report of Royal Commission on Population, Cmd. 7695, June 1949, 11 M.S.O., 4/6.

APPENDIX 2

HIS MAJESTY'S GOVERNMENT

December, 1949

MEMBERS OF THE CABINET

- Prime Minister and First Lord of the Treasury
Rt. Hon. CLEMENT RICHARD ATTLEE, C.H., M.P.
- Lord President of the Council and Leader of the House of Commons
Rt. Hon. HERBERT STANLEY MORRISON, M.P.
- Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs
Rt. Hon. ERNEST BEVIN, M.P.
- Chancellor of the Exchequer
Rt. Hon. Sir STAFFORD CRIPPS, K.C., M.P.
- Minister of Defence
Rt. Hon. ALBERT VICTOR ALEXANDER, C.H., M.P.
- Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster
Rt. Hon. HUGH DALTON, M.P.
- Lord Privy Seal and Paymaster-General and Leader of the House of Lords
Rt. Hon. Viscount ADDISON, K.G.
- Lord Chancellor
Rt. Hon. Viscount JOWITT
- Secretary of State for the Home Department
Rt. Hon. JAMES CHUTER EDE, M.P.
- Secretary of State for the Colonies
Rt. Hon. ARTHUR CREECH JONES, M.P.
- Secretary of State for Commonwealth Relations
Rt. Hon. PHILIP JOHN NOEL-BAKER, M.P.
- Secretary of State for Scotland
Rt. Hon. ARTHUR WOODBURN, M.P.
- Minister of Labour and National Service
Rt. Hon. GEORGE ALFRED ISAACS, M.P.
- Minister of Health
Rt. Hon. ANEURIN BEVAN, M.P.
- Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries
Rt. Hon. THOMAS WILLIAMS, M.P.
- Minister of Education
Rt. Hon. GEORGE TOMLINSON, M.P.
- President of the Board of Trade
Rt. Hon. JAMES HAROLD WILSON, O.B.E., M.P.

MINISTERS NOT IN THE CABINET

First Lord of the *Admiralty*—Rt. Hon. Viscount HALL

Secretary of State for *War*—Rt. Hon. EMANUEL SHINWELL, M.P.

Secretary of State for *Air*—Rt. Hon. ARTHUR HENDERSON, K.C., M.P.

Minister of *Transport*—Rt. Hon. ALFRED BARNES, M.P.

Minister of *Food*—Rt. Hon. JOHN STRACHEY, M.P.

Minister of *Town and Country Planning*—Rt. Hon. LEWIS SILKIN, M.P.

Minister of *National Insurance*—Rt. Hon. JAMES GRIFFITHS, M.P.

Minister of *Supply*—Rt. Hon. GEORGE RUSSELL STRAUSS, M.P.

Minister of *Fuel and Power*—Rt. Hon. HUGH TODD NAYLOR GAITSKELL, C.B.E., M.P.

Minister of *Civil Aviation*—Rt. Hon. Lord PAKENHAM

Postmaster-General—Rt. Hon. WILFRED PALING, M.P.

Minister of *Works*—Rt. Hon. CHARLES WILLIAM KEY, M.P.

Minister of State for *Colonial Affairs*—Rt. Hon. the Earl of LISTOWEL

Minister of State—Rt. Hon. HECTOR McNEIL, M.P.

Minister of *Pensions*—HILARY ADAIR MARQUAND, Esq., M.P.

Paymaster-General—Lord MACDONALD of GWAENYSGOR.

APPENDIX 3

ADDRESSES OF ORGANISATIONS MENTIONED IN THE TEXT

- Air Registration Board, Brettenham House, Lancaster Place, London, W.C.2.
Air Training Corps, Air Ministry, Adastral House, Kingsway, London, W.C.2.
Air Transport Advisory Council, 9, Buckingham Gate, London, S.W.1.
Army Cadet Force, The War Office, 4, Whitehall Court, London, S.W.1.
B.E.A.C., Dorland Hall, Lower Regent Street, London, S.W.1.
B.O.A.C., Airways Terminal, Victoria, London, S.W.1.
Boy Scouts Association, 25, Buckingham Palace Road, London, S.W.1.
British Air Charter Association, Londonderry House, Park Lane, London, W.1.
British Broadcasting Corporation, Broadcasting House, Portland Place, London, W.1.
British Electricity Authority, British Electricity House, Great Portland Street, London, W.1.
British Employers' Confederation, 21, Tothill Street, London, S.W.1.
British Federation of Social Workers, 5, Victoria Street, London, S.W.1.
British Gas Council, Gas Industry House, Grosvenor Place, London, S.W.1.
British Institute of Adult Education, 29, Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.
British Iron & Steel Federation, Steel House, Tothill Street, London, S.W.1.
British Red Cross Society, 6, Cadogan Square, London, S.W.1.
British Transport Commission, 55, Broadway, London, S.W.1.
Cable & Wireless, Electra House, Victoria Embankment, London, W.C.2.
Carnegie U.K. Trust, Comely Park House, Dunfermline, Fife, Scotland.
Catholic Marriage Advisory Council, 38, Parliament Street, London, S.W.1.
Central After-care Association, 66, Eccleston Square, London, S.W.1.
Central Council for the Care of Cripples, 34, Eccleston Square, London, S.W.1.
Central Council for Health Education, Tavistock House, Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.
Central Land Board, Devonshire House, Mayfair Place, London, W.1.
Citizens' Advice Bureaux, 26, Bedford Square, London, W.C.1.
Docks and Inland Waterways Executive, 22, Dorset Square, London, N.W.1.
Family Welfare Association, 296, Vauxhall Bridge Road, London, S.W.1.
Finance Corporation for Industry Ltd., 3, Lombard Street, London, E.C.3.
Forestry Commission, 25, Savile Row, London, W.1.
General Post Office, St. Martin's-le-Grand, London, E.C.4.
Girl Guides Association, 17-19, Buckingham Palace Road, London, S.W.1.
Hotels Executive, 222, Marylebone Road, London, N.W.1.
Industrial and Commercial Finance Corporation, 7, Drapers Gardens, London, E.C.2.
Industrial Health Research Board, Keppel Street, London, W.C.1.
Industrial Welfare Society, 48, Bryanston Square, London, W.1.
Joint University Council for Social Studies and Public Administration, 5, Victoria Street, London, S.W.1.
Lloyd's, Leadenhall Street, London, E.C.3.
London County Council, County Hall, London, S.E.1.
London Transport Executive, 55, Broadway, Westminster, London, S.W.1.
Medical Research Council, Keppel Street, London, W.C.1.

Merchant Navy Welfare Board, 9-19, Rupert Street, London, W.1.
 Metropolitan Water Board, 173, Rosebery Avenue, London, E.C.1.
 Milk Marketing Board, Giggs Hill Green, Thames Ditton, Surrey.
 Miners' Welfare Commission, Ashley Court, Ashted, Surrey.
 National Association for Mental Health, 39, Queen Anne Street, London, W.1.
 National Association of Boys' Clubs, 17, Bedford Square, London, W.C.1.
 National Association of Girls' Clubs and Mixed Clubs, 30-32, Devonshire Street, London, W.1.
 National Association of Discharged Prisoners' Aid Societies, 66, Eccleston Square, London, S.W.1.
 National Association of Probation Officers, 2, Hobart Place, London, S.W.1.
 National Association of Training Corps for Girls, Alfred House, 24, Cromwell Place, London, S.W.7.
 National Coal Board, Hobart House, Grosvenor Place, Victoria, London, S.W.1.
 National Corporation for the Care of Old People, 9, Mecklenburgh Square, London, W.C.1.
 National Council of Associated Children's Homes, 85, Highbury Park, London, N.5.
 National Council of Social Service, 26, Bedford Square, London, W.C.1.
 National Federation of Young Farmers' Clubs, 55, Gower Street, London, W.C.1.
 National Marriage Guidance Council, 78, Duke Street, Manchester Square, London, W.1.
 Northern Ireland Housing Trust, 5, Donegall Square South, Belfast.
 Port of London Authority, P.L.A. House, Trinity Square, London, E.C.3.
 Prison Commissioners, Horseferry House, Dean Ryle Street, London, S.W.1.
 Railway Executive, 222, Marylebone Road, London, N.W.1.
 Remploy Ltd., 25, Buckingham Street, London, S.W.1.
 Road Haulage Executive, 222, Marylebone Road, London, N.W.1.
 Road Passenger Executive, 222, Marylebone Road, London, N.W.1.
 Royal Society for the Prevention of Accidents, 52, Grosvenor Gardens, London, S.W.1.
 Scottish Special Housing Association, 15-21, Palmerston Place, Edinburgh 12.
 Sea Cadet Corps, 37, Gracechurch Street, London, E.C.3.
 Society of British Aircraft Constructors, 32, Savile Row, London, W.1.
 Standing Conference of National Voluntary Youth Organisations, 26, Bedford Square, London, W.C.1.
 Trades Union Congress, Transport House, Smith Square, London, S.W.1.
 Transport Commission, 55, Broadway, London, S.W.1.
 Transport Tribunal, 125, Strand, London, W.C.2.
 Women's Land Army, 4, Chesham Street, London, S.W.1.
 Women's Voluntary Services, 51, Tothill Street, London, S.W.1.
 Workers' Educational Association, 38A, St. George's Drive, London, S.W.1.
 Young Men's Christian Association, Great Russell Street, London, W.C.1.
 Youth Hostels Association, Midland Bank Chambers, Howardsgate, Welwyn Garden City, Herts.

APPENDIX 4

BIBLIOGRAPHY (by Sections)

I

Central Government

Parliament.	W. Ivor Jennings	Cambridge University Press	1948	25/-
The British Constitution.	W. Ivor Jennings	C.U.P.	1941	25/-
Cabinet Government.	W. Ivor Jennings	C.U.P.	1947	25/-
English Political Institutions.	Sir J. A. R. Marriott	Oxford University Press		5/-
The Purpose of Parliament.	Quintin M. Hogg	Blandford	1946	8/6
The British Civil Service.	H. Finer	Allen & Unwin	1937	3/6
Recruitment to the Civil Service in the Reconstruction Period				
		Cmd. 6567 H.M.S.O.	Nov. 44	4d.
Proposals for the Reforming of the Foreign Service				
		Cmd 6420 H.M.S.O.	Jan 43	2d
Administrative Class of the Civil Service		Cmd 6680 H.M.S.O.	Sept 45	1d.
Scientific Civil Service		Cmd 5679 H.M.S.O.	Sept. 45	1d.
Political Activities of Civil Servants		Cmd. 7718 H.M.S.O.	June 49	9d.
The British Parliament		C.O.J. R1817	Oct. 49	

Local Government

Outline of Local Government in the United Kingdom (15th Edition)				
	J. J. Clarke	Putman	1946	10/-
Local Government in England and Wales during the Period of Reconstruction				
		Cmd. 6579 H.M.S.O.	Jan. 45	4d.
Report of Local Boundary Commission for 1946		H.M.S.O.	April 47	4d.
Local Government Act 1948		H.M.S.O.	Mar. 48	2/-
The Law and the Constitution.	W. Ivor Jennings	University of London Press	1943	10/6
English Prisons Under Local Government. Sidney and Beatrice Webb				
		Longmans Green	1922	21/-
Local Government in England and Wales		C.O.I R 557	Jan 45	
Local Elections in Great Britain		C.O.I R.901	Oct 45	

Law and Order

English Courts of Law	H. G. Hanbury	Oxford University Press	1944	5/-
John Citizen and the Law.	R. Rubinstein	Penguin Books	1947	2/-
British Justice.	Sir Maurice Amos.	Longmans Green		1/-
(British Life and Thought Series)				
Short History of the British Police.	Reith	Oxford University Press	1948	3/6
The Metropolitan Police at War		H.M.S.O.	1948	2/6
Metropolitan Police Commissioner's Report, 1948				
		Cmd 7737 H.M.S.O.	Aug 49	1/6
H. M. Inspectors of Constabulary. Annual Report, 1947-8		H.M.S.O.	May 49	6d.
Report of the Commissioners of Prisons and Directors of Convict Prisons for 1948				
		Cmd. 7777 H.M.S.O.	Sept. 49	2/6
The Probation Service		H.M.S.O.	1947	6d.
Criminal Justice Act, 1948		H.M.S.O.	1948	2/-

Directory of Probation Officers, etc.	H.M.S.O.		3/6
Making Citizens (Approved Schools)	H.M.S.O.	1945	1/-
Juvenile Delinquency and the Law. A. E. Innes	Penguin Books	1945	1/6
British Juvenile Courts. J. A. F. Watson	Longmans Green	1943	2/-

Defence

Central Organisation for Defence	Cmd. 6923	H.M.S.O.	Oct. 46	2d.
Ministry of Defence Act, 1946		H.M.S.O.	Dec. 46	1d.
Statement relating to Defence	Cmd. 7042	H.M.S.O.	Feb. 47	2d.
Statement relating to Defence	Cmd. 7327	H.M.S.O.	Feb. 48	4d.
Statement relating to Defence	Cmd. 7631	H.M.S.O.	Feb. 49	4d.
National Service Act, 1948		H.M.S.O.	1948	1/-
National Service (Amendment) Act, 1948		H.M.S.O.	1948	2d.
Navy Estimates		H.M.S.O.	Feb. 49	5/-
Army Estimates		H.M.S.O.	Feb. 49	3/-
Air Force Estimates		H.M.S.O.	Feb. 49	3/6

Town and Country Planning

Garden Cities of Tomorrow. Ebenezer Howard	Faber & Faber	1946	6/-
(new edition of a classic)			
Royal Commission on the Distribution of the Industrial Population (Barlow Report)	Cmd. 6153 H.M.S.O.	Jan. 40	5/-
Report of the Committee on Land Utilization in Rural Areas (Scott Report)	Cmd. 6378 H.M.S.O.	Aug. 42	2/-
Final Report of the Expert Committee on Compensation and Betterment	Cmd. 6386 H.M.S.O.	Sept. 42	2/6
The Control of Land Use	Cmd. 6537 H.M.S.O.	1944	3d.
Town and Country Planning Act, 1944	H.M.S.O.	1944	1/6
Explanatory Memorandum to Town and Country Planning Bill	Cmd. 7006 H.M.S.O.	1947	6d.
Town and Country Planning Act, 1947	H.M.S.O.	1947	3/6
Three Reports of New Towns (Reith) Committee	H.M.S.O.	1946	4d. 6d. and 1/3
New Towns Act, 1946	H.M.S.O.	1946	9d.
The Redevelopment of Central Areas, 1948	H.M.S.O.	1948	12/6
National Parks Bill	H.M.S.O.	1949	1/6
Report of New Towns, 1947-48	H.M.S.O.	1949	1/6
Report of New Towns, 1948-49	H.M.S.O.	1949	1/6
Report of the Central Land Board	H.M.S.O.	1949	4d.
Outline Plan for South Wales	H.M.S.O.	1949	£2 2s.
Civic Survey and Plan for Edinburgh	McLagan & Cumming	1949	£1 5s.
Planning and Construction	Todd Reference Book, 1942 or later year		25/-
Report of the National Parks Committee (England and Wales)	Cmd. 7121 H.M.S.O.	July 47	4/6
Report of the National Parks Committee (Scotland)	Cmd. 7235 H.M.S.O.	Nov. 47	2/-
Report of the Committee on Footpaths and Access to the Countryside	Cmd. 7207 H.M.S.O.	Sept. 47	1/3
Town and Country Planning in Britain	C.O.F. R.1735	Mar. 49	
Public Corporations and Nationalisation			
British Experiments in Public Ownership and Control. T. H. O'Brien.	Inst. of Public Administration	1937	10/6

II

The Public Corporation in Great Britain.	L. Gordon	<i>O.U.P.</i>	1938	16/-
Public Enterprise.	W. A. Robson	<i>Allen and Unwin</i>	1937	12/6
The Public Corporations in British Experience.	Address by Sir Arthur Street	<i>Inst. of Public Administration</i>	1947	
Public Corporations in Britain.		<i>C.O.I. R.829</i>	Mar. 46	
The Public Corporation and Nationalisation in Britain		<i>C.O.I. R.1658</i>	June 48	
Nationalisation in Britain : I.		<i>C.O.I. R.1391</i>	May 47	
(1. Bank of England ; 2. Cable & Wireless ; 3. Civil Aviation)				
Nationalisation in Britain. II	4. Transport	<i>C.O.I. R.1563</i>	Jan. 48	
Nationalisation in Britain. III.	5. Electricity	<i>C.O.I. R.1602</i>	Mar. 48	
6. Coal,		<i>C.O.I. R.1653</i>	June 48	
7. Gas.		<i>C.O.I. R.694</i>	Sept. 48	
Economic Position and Planning				
Planning and the Price Mechanism	J. E. Meade	<i>Allen and Unwin</i>	1948	8/6
Central Planning and Control in War and Peace.	Sir O. Franks	<i>Longmans Green</i>	1947	2/6
		<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	July 1948	9d.
Government and Industry.				
National Income and Expenditure of the U.K.				
	<i>Cmd. 6261</i>	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	1941	3d.
	<i>Cmd. 6347</i>	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	1942	4d.
	<i>Cmd. 6438</i>	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	1943	6d.
	<i>Cmd. 6520</i>	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	1944	6d.
	<i>Cmd. 6623</i>	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	1945	1/-
	<i>Cmd. 6784</i>	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	1946	9d.
	<i>Cmd. 7099</i>	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	1947	1/-
	<i>Cmd. 7391</i>	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	1948	1/-
	<i>Cmd. 7649</i>	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	1949	1/-
United Kingdom Balance of Payments 1946 to 1949				
	<i>Cmd. 7793</i>	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	Oct. 49	4d.
	<i>Cmd. 7520</i>	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	Sept. 48	3d.
	<i>Cmd. 7046</i>	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	Feb. 47	6d.
Economic Survey for 1947	<i>Cmd. 7344</i>	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	Mar. 48	1/-
Economic Survey for 1948	<i>Cmd. 7647</i>	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	Mar. 49	1/-
Economic Survey for 1949	<i>Cmd. 7263</i>	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	Dec. 47	6d.
Capital Investment in 1948				
Annual Statement of the Trade of the U.K. 1945, 4 Vols and Supplement (annual volumes) (also monthly)				£4 1s. 2d. p.a.
Annual Abstracts of Statistics (last issue No. 84, 1935-1945)	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>			10/-
Final Reports of the Census of Production (last Census. No. 5 relating to 1935)				7/6, 8/-, 9/-
Monthly Digest of Statistics	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>			2/6
Board of Trade Journal	<i>Weekly</i>			6d.
Finance				
Bank of England Act, 1946		<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	Feb. 46	2d.
Exchange Control Act, 1947		<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	Mar. 47	9d.
Borrowing (Control and Guarantees) Act, 1946		<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	July 46	2d.
U.K. Balance of Payments, 1946 to 1949	<i>Cmd. 7793</i>	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	Oct. 49	4d.
National Income and Expenditure of the U.K.	<i>Cmd. 7649</i>	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	Apr. 49	1/-

Rationing

Our Food To-day :—

No. 1. Rationing in the United Kingdom		
No. 2. Industrial and Agricultural Workers		
No. 3. Children and Young People	Ministry of Food	
Rations and Allowances in the United Kingdom	C.O.I.	Monthly

Industry

Working Party Reports (official post-war reports on various industries)	H.M.S.O.	
Coal Mining—Report of the Technical Advisory Committee, 1945	Cmd. 6610 H.M.S.O.	Mar. 45 1/-
Annual Reports and Statements of Accounts of National Coal Board (Report for 1947)	H.M.S.O.	July 48 4/6
(Report for 1948)	H.M.S.O.	June 49 6/6
British Isles—by Stamp and Beaver	Longmans Green	1947 30/-
British Industries and their Organization. G. C. Allen		1945 10/6
	Longmans Green	
British Industry. G. C. Allen	Longmans Green	1946 1/-
British Industry. M. Compton and E. H. Bott	Drummond	1940 8/6
Britain and Her Export Trade M. Abrams	Pilot Press	1947 15/-
Nationalisation in Britain : III. Coal	C.O.I. R.1653	June 48
" " " III. Gas	" R.1694	Sept. 48
" " " III. Electricity	" R.1602	Mar. 48
British Coal Mining since Nationalisation	" R.1716	Nov. 48
The British Chemical Industry	" R.1751	Mar. 49
The British Machine Tool Industry	" R.1752	Mar. 49
British Standards and the British Standards Institution	" R.1753	Feb. 49
The British Gas Industry	" R.1789	July 47
The British Motor Vehicle Industry	" R.1832	Nov. 49

Employment

Employment Policy	Cmd. 6527 H.M.S.O.	May 44 6d.
Distribution of Industry Act, 1945	H.M.S.O.	June 45 1/3
Guide to Official Sources. No. 1. Labour Statistics	H.M.S.O.	June 48 9d.
Report of the Committee on Juvenile Employment Service	H.M.S.O.	Sept. 45 1/-
Time Rates of Wages and Hours of Labour	H.M.S.O.	Sept. 49 2/-
Industrial Relations and Welfare	C.O.I. R.1774	July 49
Factory Inspection in Great Britain T. K. Djang	Allen & Unwin	1942 12.6
Annual Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories, 1947	Cmd. 7621 H.M.S.O.	Jan 48 2.6
Industrial Welfare and Personnel Management	Industrial Welfare Society, bi-monthly	2/-
Report of Ministry of Labour and National Service for the years 1939-46	Cmd. 7225 H.M.S.O.	Sept. 47 7/-
Annual Reports of M.L.N.S.—1948	Cmd. 7822 H.M.S.O.	Nov. 49 3/-
Industrial Relations Handbook and Supplements 1 and 2	H.M.S.O.	44 3.6
		May 47 9d.
		Mar. 48 6d.
81st Annual Report of the Trades Union Congress	T.U.C. Publications	1949 5/-

Statement on Personal Incomes, Costs and Prices

	<i>Cmd. 7321 H.M.S.O.</i>	<i>Feb. 48</i>	<i>1d.</i>
Miners Welfare in Wartime	<i>Miners Welfare Commission</i>	<i>1947</i>	<i>1/6</i>
Ministry of Labour Gazette, monthly	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>		<i>6d.</i>
Factory Law, C. D. Rackham	<i>Nelson</i>	<i>1938</i>	<i>3/6</i>
Report of the Committee on Conditions in Non-Industrial Employment, and Hours of Work of Young Workers	<i>Cmd. 7664 H.M.S.O.</i>	<i>1949</i>	<i>2/-</i>

III

Social Services

British Social Services, G. D. H. Cole (British Life and Thought Series)	<i>Longmans Green</i>	<i>1949</i>	<i>1/-</i>
Social Administration, J. J. Clarke	<i>Pitman 4th edition</i>	<i>1946</i>	<i>25/-</i>
Principles of Social Administration, T. S. Simey	<i>Oxford University Press</i>	<i>1937</i>	<i>10/-</i>
The Community and Social Service, W. Blackshaw	<i>Pitman</i>	<i>1939</i>	<i>7/6</i>
Recent Developments in Social Service in Great Britain	<i>National Council of Social Service</i>	<i>1948</i>	<i>9d.</i>
Public Social Services	<i>N.C.S.S.</i>	<i>1949 5/- & 7/6</i>	
Social Service, a quarterly survey	<i>N.C.S.S.</i>		<i>10/- p.a.</i>
Social Work, a quarterly review of family casework.	<i>Family Welfare Association</i>		<i>9/- p.a.</i>
British Social Services, National Book League	<i>List No. 208</i>		
Age is Opportunity	<i>N.C.S.S.</i>	<i>1949</i>	<i>2/6</i>
Report on the Employment and Training of Social Workers.	<i>Carnegie U.K. Trust</i>	<i>1947</i>	<i>Free</i>
E. L. Younghusband	<i>C.O.I.R. 1737</i>	<i>Mar. 49</i>	
Social Services in Britain	<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	<i>1948</i>	<i>16/-</i>
Voluntary Action, Beveridge	<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	<i>1949</i>	<i>21/-</i>
The Evidence for Voluntary Action	<i>Beveridge & Wells (Ed.)</i>		
Voluntary Social Services: a Handbook of Information and Directory of Organisations	<i>N.C.S.S.</i>	<i>1948</i>	<i>7/6</i>
Voluntary Social Services since 1918, H. A. Mess and others	<i>Kegan Paul</i>	<i>1948</i>	<i>21/-</i>
Voluntary Social Services, their place in the modern state.	<i>Methuen</i>	<i>1945</i>	<i>16/-</i>
A. F. C. Bourdillon			
Annual Reports of National Council of Social Service (1/6) and of other associations	<i>N.C.S.S.</i>	<i>1948</i>	<i>5/-</i>
Advising the Citizen—(Citizens Advice Bureaux)			

National Insurance and Assistance

Social Insurance and Allied Services (Beveridge Report)	<i>Cmd. 6404 H.M.S.O.</i>	<i>Nov. 42</i>	<i>2/-</i>
Annual Reports of the Assistance Board	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>		<i>9d.</i>
National Insurance Bill, Summary of Main Provisions	<i>Cmd. 6729 H.M.S.O.</i>	<i>1946</i>	<i>6/-</i>
National Insurance Act, 1946	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	<i>Aug. 46</i>	<i>1/3</i>
Family Allowances Act, 1945	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	<i>June 45</i>	<i>4d.</i>
National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Act, 1946	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	<i>July 46</i>	<i>1/3</i>

Memorandum on National Assistance Bill	Cmd. 7248	H.M.S.O.	Nov. 47	3d.
National Assistance Act, 1948		H.M.S.O.	May 48	1/3
Increases in Old Age, Widows' and Blind Persons' Pensions	Cmd. 6878	H.M.S.O.	July 46	2d.
(Curtis) Report of the Care of Children Committee	Cmd. 6922	H.M.S.O.	Sept. 46	3/-
Children Act, 1948		H.M.S.O.	June 48	1/3
National Assistance Board (1st Annual Report)	Cmd. 7767	H.M.S.O.	Sept. 49	1/3
Social Insurance in Britain	C.O.I. R.1731		Dec. 48	

Health

The National Health Service Bill : Summary of Proposals	Cmd. 6761	H.M.S.O.	1946	3d.
The National Health Service Act, 1946		H.M.S.O.	Nov. 46	1/-
The Administration of the National Health Services (Report from Select Committee on Estimates)		H.M.S.O.	June 49	4/-
The National Health Service		H.M.S.O.	1949	6d.
Annual Reports of the Ministry of Health—Report for year ended March, 1948	Cmd. 7734	H.M.S.O.	Aug. 49	5/-
Annual Reports of Department of Health for Scotland—Report for year 1948	Cmd. 7659	H.M.S.O.	Mar. 49	1/6
Rehabilitation Report, Scotland		H.M.S.O.	April 46	6d.
Health Services in Britain	C.O.I. R.1748		Mar. 49	
Maternity and Child Welfare in England and Wales	C.O.I. R.1690		Sept. 48	
Rehabilitation and Resettlement in Britain.	C.O.I. R.1773		May 49	
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Education

Education Act, 1944		H.M.S.O.	Aug. 44	2/-
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A Guide to the Educational System of England and Wales		H.M.S.O.	Aug. 45	1/-
British Education. H. C. Dent. (British Life and Thought Series)		Longmans Green		1/-
A Short History of English Education. H. C. Barnard		University of London Press	1947	18/-
First—the Infant, Cicely Fraser. (Britain Advances Series.) (On nursery schools)		Longmans Green	1943	1/-
Report of the (Norwood) Committee on the Curriculum and Examinations in Secondary Schools		H.M.S.O.	June 43	1/6
The New Secondary Education		H.M.S.O.	1947	1/6
Special Educational Treatment		H.M.S.O.	1946	9d.
The Public Schools (Fleming Report)		H.M.S.O.	July 44	1/6
Report of the (McNair) Committee on the Training and Recruitment of Teachers and Youth Leaders		H.M.S.O.	April 44	2/-
The Health of the School Child. Report of the Chief Medical Officer of the Ministry of Education for 1939-1945		H.M.S.O.	Jan. 48	2/6
School and Life. First Report of Central Advisory Council for Education (England)		H.M.S.O.	May 47	2/6
(Percy) Report on Higher Technological Education		H.M.S.O.	July 45	6d.
Technical Education, Scotland	Cmd. 6786	H.M.S.O.	April 46	2/-

Youth's Opportunity—Further Education in County Colleges			
	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	Oct. 45	1/-
Purpose and Content of the Youth Service	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	July 45	4d.
Further Education	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	1947	1/-
British Universities. Sir Ernest Barker. (British Life and Thought Series)	<i>Longmans Green</i>	1946	1/-
The Year Book of Education	<i>Evans Brothers</i>	1948	£3 3s.
Education—Official organ of the Association of Education Committees			3d. weekly
Further Education			5/- quarterly
Organised Camping	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	May 48	1/-
Out-of-School. Report of the Central Advisory Council (England)	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	June 48	1/-
The Future of the Universities	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	Dec. 48	2/-
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Citizens Growing Up	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	Aug. 49	1/-
Seven to Eleven (Junior Schools)	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	Sept. 49	1/-
Education in Britain	<i>C.O.I. R.1738</i>	Feb. 49	
Youth Service			
Youth Organisations of Great Britain	O. Cooke	<i>Jordan & Sons</i>	1946 8/6
Youth Services	A. E. Morgan	<i>Longmans Green</i>	1948 2/-
The Service of Youth Today. <i>Planning</i> . No. 280		<i>P.E.P.</i>	April 48 2/-
The Outlook for Youth Work. L. J. Barnes		<i>King George's Jubilee Trust</i>	1948 3/6
		<i>N.C.S.S.</i>	1948 3/6
Youth in Britain—Today (See also above under Education for H.M.S.O. reports on Youth Service)			
Housing			
Housing Returns for England and Wales	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>		9d.
	(Monthly, Jan. 46—June, 48, quarterly from June, 48)		each
Housing Returns for Scotland	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>		6d.
	Quarterly		each
Annual Reports of the Health Departments (see above)			
Housing (Financial and Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, 1946	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	April 46	6d.
Housing Act, 1936	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>		3/-
Housing Act, 1949	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	July 49	1/-
Ministry of Health Circular 90/49. Housing Act, 1949	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	Sept. 49	6d.
Post-War Building Studies, including			
No. 1 House Construction	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	1944	2/-
No. 23 House Construction : Second Report	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	1946	1/6
No. 25 House Construction : Third Report	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	1949	2/-
Design of Dwellings	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	July 44	1/-
Housing Manual	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	Nov. 49	3/6
Rent Control in England and Wales	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	July 46	3d.
Furnished Houses (Rent Control) Act, 1946	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	Mar. 46	2d.
Landlord and Tenant (Rent Control) Act, 1949	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	June 49	6d.
Britain's Housing Problem	<i>C.O.I. R.1746</i>	Mar. 49	

Inland Transport

Transport Act, 1947	<i>H.M.S.O. Sept. 47</i>	3/-
First Annual Report and Accounts of the Transport Commission	<i>H.M.S.O. Sept. 49</i>	7/-
Nationalisation in Britain (Transport)	<i>C.O.I. R1563 Jan. 48</i>	

Shipping and Shipbuilding

Shipbuilding and Ships	<i>Worshipful Company of Shipwrights</i>	1947	12/6
Achievement in British Shipbuilding	<i>A. C. Hardy Pilot Press</i>	1942	2/6
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